INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION IN THE CLASSROOM: STUDENTS' SELF-
PERCEPTIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF THEIR TEACHER'S
PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THEM IN TWO FOURTH-GRADE CLASSES

BY

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For my husband, Michael Douglas Coe, who is the wind beneath my wings.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

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The purpose of this study was to investigate how

children perceived themselves and interpreted their

teacher's perceptions about them in class. The researcher

assumed a social-interaction perspective that views the

development of self through social interactions. The study

focused on four questions:

1. What is the content of students' self-
    perceptions?

2. What is the content of students' interpretations
    of their teacher's perceptions about them in
    class?

3. What kinds of information did students use to
    construct their interpretations?

4. What is the role of classroom interactions in
    the construction of students' interpretations of
    their teacher's perceptions about them in
    class?

Qualitative research methods were used to collect and analyze the data. The researcher used a methodological triangulation to better examine students' perceptions. Students wrote free responses about themselves and what their teacher thought of them. Formal and informal interviews were conducted with 21 out of the 60 participating children. Classroom observations were conducted over a period of five months.

Taxonomic and content analysis revealed the following:

1. Children perceived themselves differently from what they thought their teacher thought of them.

2. Children lacked information in what their teacher thought about them, especially in areas in which they did not have feedback.

3. Children used their classroom interactions and experiences with the teacher as the sources of information for their interpretations.

The results suggested that in order for teachers to create and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships in their classrooms, they need to provide students with specific feedback about their personal, social, and academic progress.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

When people interact with others, they see what others do and hear what others say in various social situations. People select, organize, and interpret information about themselves and others; they construct and co-construct perceptions and assign meanings. People connect new information with previous knowledge, focus on what and who interests them, and create new understandings about themselves and others.

Interpersonal perception is largely an internal process; people cognitively process socially constructed roles and meanings. Interpersonal perception is a process of individual meaning-making with its content, steps, and outcomes varying within different individuals and contexts. Human behavior is an outcome of how people see themselves and their experiences. Although this may be seen as obvious, the failure of people to understand it is responsible for much human misunderstanding, conflict, and even loneliness (Combs, Avila, & Purkey, 1978).

How students perceive, organize, and interpret their classroom experiences with their teachers and the social world in which they live is an integral part of the learning process (Brookover, Thomas, & Patterson, 1964; Andrade, 1995). Studying how experiences involving oneself and others seem to a student through the "eyes" of that student, and the intersubjective perspective of the student's own experience, will help researchers and educators to better understand the process of interpersonal perception (Combs, Avila, & Purkey, 1978).

Through daily classroom interactions and school experiences, as well as interactions with oneself, students develop a conception of personal existence; next to the home, schools probably have the single greatest influence on how students perceive themselves and their abilities (Purkey & Novak, 1996).

How adults--and children--perceive themselves and how they think others perceive them may influence the views they construct about themselves and, as a consequence, their social interactions with others (Hansford, 1988). The way people construct reality is fundamental to the way they perceive themselves. What people think of each other is a strong influence in virtually every area of their lives (Mead, 1934). People often act in response to what they <u>believe</u> is other people's attitude toward them and

often fall into the role they feel others assign to them. Each person looks at an interpersonal relationship in two ways: (a) how he/she <u>perceives</u> the relationship and (b) how he/she <u>thinks</u> the other person sees the relationship.

This study adopted and adapted a symbolic interactionist perspective. In this perspective, the student is viewed not only as a <u>knower</u> of the social world but also as an <u>actor</u> in it (Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934). Accordingly, in this study the student is viewed as not only the perceiver of social reality but also as a co-constructor of it. The student is seen as someone who not only interprets and transforms social experiences but one who is also transformed by them. Meaning is constructed and negotiated in the interactions among the members. The classroom setting is viewed as a culture in which members construct common knowledge about ways of acting and interacting with each other, about the social and material artifacts of their experiences, and about the world around them.

<u>Statement of the Problem</u>

Research about students' perspectives is a relatively recent phenomenon and has provided researchers and educators with valuable information about the importance of students' perceptions for their development of self,

learning, and overall achievement (Wittrock, 1986).
Students' perceptions have been viewed as mediators of
student learning (Purkey, 1981, 1991; Purkey & Novak, 1996;
Winne & Marx, 1980). Studies have shown that teaching can
be better understood and improved by knowing its effects
upon the learner's thoughts that mediate achievement
(Stipek, 1981).

Although investigations into the opinions and
perceptions of teachers hold a predominant place in
educational research (Cohen & Manion, 1981), how students
perceive their teacher's perceptions about them has tended
to be ignored. Much research evidence exists on what
students think about school (Woods, 1979), learning
(Weinstein, 1983), schoolwork (Woods, 1976b), teachers
(Prentiss, 1995), student teachers (Cortis & Grayson, 1976;
Prentiss, 1995), and others (Livesley & Bromley, 1973). On
the other hand, research evidence is missing on what may be
a vital factor in student learning--academic and social--
and teaching. Research is missing on students' "meta-
perceptions": on what children think their teacher thinks
of them as a student in the social setting of the
classroom.

How students generate and construct meaning from
their experiences with the teacher in the social setting of
the classroom may mediate the development of students'

self-perceptions, identity, present and future classroom interactions with the teacher, and students' learning and success in school. These interpretations, referred to as "meta-perceptions" (Kenny, 1994) or "reflected appraisals" (Blumer, 1969) may function as a *filter* through which any information about oneself, one's abilities, and learning is processed. Such a *filter* may mediate students' personal, interpersonal, academic, and social development.

If students entered the classroom as *tabula rasas*, there would not be a need to invest time and energy examining how they perceive their experiences with the teacher in the classroom. However, students enter school with well-defined perceptions of self, others, and school life (Stipek & Hoffman, 1980b). In their daily interactions with their teachers they define and redefine, shape and reshape, reject old and construct new ideas about oneself, others, and learning.

> Everything the teacher does as well as the manner in which he does it invites the child to respond in some way or another and each response tends to set the child's attitude in some way or another. (Dewey, 1933, p.59)

Students use their perceptions and interpretations in an unrelenting struggle to make sense of their world. These perceptions influence their interpretations of and reaction to classroom experiences. As long as students and teachers have sufficient knowledge of each other's perceptions,

communication and interpersonal relationships take place
smoothly. However, an incongruity in perceived
perspectives may interfere with a student's personal
growth, classroom interactions, participation in classroom
activities, and overall learning. Incongruity between
teachers' and students' meanings is of immense importance
to the educational process (Sainsbury, 1992).

The problem this study addresses is the lack of
information about how students make sense out of their
classroom interactions with their teachers. Academic,
social, and interpersonal learning is not created in
isolation but through relationships, and students'
interpretations of what their teacher thinks of them could
affect their communication and interactions with the
teacher and their overall success in school. As a society,
we want our children to develop personally,
interpersonally, socially, and academically so they can
function as successful citizens. Of the 52 million children
enrolled in U.S. primary and secondary schools, millions
are at risk for failing to reach their educational
potential (Schneider, 1995). Not only does the U. S.
educational system fail to reach large numbers of American
children, but it fails to meet the needs of our nation (*A
Nation at Risk*, 1983). In order for children to grow and
learn successfully, they need to have enough information on

what their significant others think of them in various situations.

If researchers and educators are to help all students succeed, both academically and socially, in school, they need to realize that it is necessary to understand students' perceptual worlds and perspectives. Many times the problems adults have with children stem from failing to check children's perceptions (Karns, 1994). Students' perspectives should not be disregarded: they supply the bedrock for meaning, building of self, behavior, and learning (Purkey, 1996; Taylor, 1993). Dewey (1938) recommended that researchers and educators need to know more about how students experience education and how they reflect on that experience.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify how students perceived themselves and how they perceived their teacher's perceptions about them. This study used a symbolic interactionist perspective that views the development of self through daily *emic*, or intersubjective, social interactions with significant others in our world. The following research questions were examined:

1. In what manner do fourth-grade students perceive themselves? What is the content of their self-perceptions?

2. In what manner do fourth-grade students perceive
    their teacher's perceptions about them? What is
    the content of their interpretations?

3. What kind of information do fourth-grade
    students use to form interpretations of their
    teacher's perceptions about them in class?

4. What is the role of classroom interactions in
    the construction of students' interpretations of
    their teacher's perceptions about them in class?

Questions one and two reveal information about the
similarities or differences between students' self-
perceptions and their interpretations of the teacher's
perceptions about them. The third question provides
information about what elements students select from daily
classroom interactions with the teacher, how they organize
that information, and how they use it. The fourth question
offers insight about the ways students' interpretations
relate to their classroom interactions with the teacher.

Significance of the Study

Unlike much research in interpersonal perception that
focuses on children's self-perceptions, the focus of this
study was on how children perceive themselves and form
interpretations about what their teacher thinks of them in
actual, naturalistic classroom settings. The results of
the study may offer useful information about what elements
of their classroom experiences children select to form such
interpretations that in the long run could affect their

self-perceptions, behavior, and learning. A student's perceptions of what the teacher might think of him/her will not necessarily *cause* the student to misbehave in the classroom, but they might serve as a reference point or an anchoring perception, for his/her self-perceptions and behavior (Marsh, 1986).

Classrooms are extremely complex and dynamic contexts in which students and teachers construct and co-construct perceptions about themselves and others. Better understanding of how students perceive and interpret their experiences with the teacher in the classroom may prove to be a significant mediating variable that will help educators understand a child's behavior--academic, social--in the classroom.

The present study can yield a number of contributions to both research and practice in the area of interpersonal perception. Findings from this study could extend the body of knowledge in children's interpersonal perceptions and may support the usefulness of symbolic interactionism in understanding children's interpersonal perceptions.

For researchers this study might have theoretical significance in that it will illustrate in detail how nine- to ten-year-old students perceive their experiences with a significant other--their classroom teacher--in everyday interactions. It could help develop a system for

explaining the processes by which children construct interpretations of their teachers' perceptions by specifying constructs and possible relationships between and among those constructs.

The study of social processes in classrooms is important because: (a) teacher-student relationships are important mediators of the academic outcomes of schooling (Hansford, 1988) and (b) the school experience itself may have significant social outcomes that influence students' self-perceptions and their interactions with others inside and outside the school setting (Levine & Wang, 1983).

In addition, this study might show whether students have a generalized or specific view of how the teacher sees them and whether this view changes over time (Levine & Wang, 1983). The results from this study could serve to highlight variables that can stimulate further research by researchers who are interested in developing ways that educators can use to have a positive influence on the personal, academic, and social development of their students (Good & Brophy, 1994). Methodologically, this study might illustrate the usefulness of qualitative methods in the study of children's perceptions. Understanding children's perceptions and interpretations of their experiences with teachers might help us understand

children's responses to teachers and the formation of their views of interpersonal relationships.

Findings from this study may also be of value to practitioners. The detailed descriptions of the classroom settings might increase teachers' awareness of the importance and capability of students' interpretations of their classroom experiences with their teachers. It could also increase teachers' awareness of the need to study students' views in order to better understand how they select, organize, interpret, and use their social experiences with their teachers. Attention to the students' perceptions could lead to better instruction and interactions, and even help correct and prevent misunderstandings between students and their teacher in class.

Finally, it could help teachers to not underestimate the immense potential of students to actively participate in the construction of their own learning experiences. This study may illustrate the importance of understanding how experiences are seen from the student's perspective. The results of this study might help teachers better understand how their interactions with their students are being received, interpreted and acted upon (Egan, 1990; Gordon, 1974). Patterson and Purkey (1993) suggest that

such understanding should be a major goal of teacher training programs.

In summary, this study could help improve our understanding of the significance of interpersonal relationships between students and teachers in elementary classrooms. Some teachers claim that a major source of difficulty in their work is relating to their students, and that once this has been achieved, the academic issues are relatively simple (Hall & Hall, 1988). Good interpersonal relationships are "the major condition for learning" (Patterson, 1973, p.98).

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms need to be defined: perception, interpersonal perception, self-perception, "meta-perceptions" (or "reflected appraisals"), and symbolic interactionism.

Perception is a fundamental aspect of interpersonal relationships (Wilson et al., 1995). Perception gives meaning and stability in our relationships because it is a process through which we select, organize, and interpret what is happening around us (Wilson et al., 1995). Perception is an active, inductive process involving attention, selection, organization, and interpretation (Triandis, 1977). Perception refers not only to the

"seeing" but also to the "meaning" or personal significance of classroom experiences for the student experiencing them. A study of these meanings may reveal students' beliefs, values, desires, and personal ways in which they perceive themselves and what their teacher thinks of them in the classroom (Combs, 1978).

Interpersonal perception is the process of perceiving and evaluating others in a context in which people are interacting (Kenny, 1994). It involves not only how people perceive themselves and others in social interactions, but also how people think others perceive them.

Self- perceptions are thoughts, beliefs, and feelings about self, others, and events. In the past, research in this area was based predominantly on behavioral theories, environmental stimuli, and reinforcement theory as influences of behavior (Schunk & Meece, 1992). Current cognitive theories of learning assume that students are active rather than passive processors of information and knowledge and that there is no automatic relation between information presented and how it is perceived by students (Schunk & Meece, 1992). Self-perceptions involve perceptions of one's abilities, goals, efforts, interests, attitudes, values, and emotions (Schunk & Meece, 1992). Self-perceptions are a complex, continuously active system of subjective beliefs about one's personal existence.

Self-perceptions guide one's behavior and choice of roles in life (Purkey & Novak, 1996).

"Meta-perceptions" (Kenny, 1994)--or "reflected appraisals,"--according to symbolic interactionists (e.g., Blumer, 1969)--are the perceptions of another person's perception; they refer to people trying to "get into other people's heads" (Kenny, 1994). In this study, students' "meta-perceptions" will be examined through symbolic interactionism (Blumer, 1969; Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934), which proposes that our very selves are an outcome of material components, our perceptions of how others view us, and inner psychological mechanisms (Shrauger & Schoeneman, 1979). According to this perspective, the self is a social product of a person's interactions with others. The self is a function of a person's manipulation of the social environment and a function of the way in which a person is treated by others (Mead, 1934).

The premise of this perspective is that people care about how they are viewed by significant others. "Significant others" are people such as, parents, teachers, coaches, and peers who are close to a person and whose views and actions matter to him/her (Mead, 1934). Although there are expected variations in the vigor of people's desire to know what others think about them, symbolic interactionists assume that meta-perceptions are usually

accurate (Kinch, 1963). Kinch (1963) suggested that a symbolic interactionist self-theory involves the interaction of four components: (a) one's self-concept; (b) one's perceptions of others' attitudes and responses toward the individual; (c) the actual attitudes and responses of others toward the individual; and (d) one's actual behavior.

This study is not concerned with degree of accuracy in children's "meta-perceptions"/"reflected appraisals," but rather with how children form "meta-perceptions" from and in their daily classroom interactions with one of their significant others--their teacher.

Symbolic interactionism supporters (e.g., Mead, 1934) would suggest that people's perceptions of experiences depend on the meaning they assign to them. Meaning is a product of social interaction. In order to understand someone's reality, it is necessary to understand the symbol system he/she uses and the meaning those symbols have for the him or her. Reality in the classroom could be seen as having three aspects: (a) the outside world (e.g., society); (b) the inner world (e.g., teachers' and students' inner world); and (c) a shared symbolic world of beliefs, experiences, and meanings constructed and sustained through social interactions.

In order to understand the symbolic world of the classroom, we should consider that teachers' and students' actions are based on the meaning they assign to classroom life. Meaning is fundamentally intersubjective; therefore, in order for researchers to understand how students perceive themselves and the teachers' perceptions of them in class, their construction of meaning and their perspectives need to be examined.

Design of the Study

Having received approval from the University of Florida Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects, the researcher established a monthly observation schedule with the two fourth-grade teachers who had previously agreed to have the study take place in their classrooms. Observations began in September, 1996 and continued in the classroom until the December vacation. Interviews were completed in January, 1997. The researcher observed 190 hours of classroom activity in the two fourth-grade classrooms. Observations were centered on how children interacted with the teacher in their classroom, how they behaved in and responded to classroom events, and comments they made about themselves, the teacher, and classroom events. All children in the participating classrooms wrote free responses four times per month about their self-

perceptions and how they thought their teacher perceived them in class.

Three formal interviews with 21 children (13 from one classroom and eight from the other) and three formal and several informal interviews with the two teachers were conducted during the term of the study. Interviews with students were used to further investigate the process of meta-perception: how students perceived their teacher's perceptions about them in class. Interviews with the two teachers were used to investigate how they provided information to their students about what they thought of them in class. In addition, students' school records were examined.

Data were analyzed for content and were organized into domains (Spradley, 1980). Using data from across domains helped to formulate taxonomies to represent patterns, similarities, and differences in students' self-perceptions and meta-perceptions.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Putting together a literature review about students'
self-perceptions and "meta-perceptions" is a continuing
challenge, for few researchers have focused on this
phenomenon, particularly as it evolves in classroom
settings. The following literature review offers necessary
background for the research questions raised in this study.
The review focuses on studies of students' perceptions in
the classroom, students' voices in the classroom, and
students' meta-perceptions.

Why do people behave in different ways? Combs (1962)
explains human behavior as a product of how people see
themselves, the situations they are involved in, and the
meaning or personal significance that situation has for the
person experiencing it. Meanings extend far beyond the
sensory experience and include such perceptions as beliefs,
desires, feelings, values, interests, and the personal ways
in which people "see" themselves and others around them
(Combs, 1962). Following this perceptual perspective,
Purkey (1981) explains that:

> Each person is a conscious agent who considers,
> constructs, interprets, and then acts. . . . All
> behavior is a function of the individual's perceived
> world. . . . A person's behavior makes sense from the
> "internal" view of the experiencing person. (p.17)

To understand human behavior one must make sense of *how* things appear from the unique point of the individual at the moment of behaving (Purkey, 1996). Perceptions are important in understanding human behavior as they refer to the distinctions people are able to make in their personal experiences (Purkey, 1996). Perceptions change over time. Through daily encounters with others, and especially with significant others, people construct certain essential perceptions that serve as guiding filters for making sense of the world. Purkey (1996) views perceptions as:

> reference points for behavior. They influence the
> memories people use to understand the past and plan
> the future. They also affect the possibilities that
> people can imagine and the goals they are willing to
> work for. (p.23)

Students' Perceptions in the Classroom

Researchers recently have investigated student perceptions to determine their relation to teaching and student behaviors (Brophy & Good, 1986), but historically student perceptions have received little research attention. Lately, researchers and educators have been making systematic efforts to understand students' role in research. The problems associated with inviting students to play a more focal role are authenticity, legitimacy, and

and authority (Denzin & Lincoln, 1993) and the ethical relationships between researchers and their participants (Lincoln, 1993).

The third edition of the *Handbook of Research in Teaching* (Wittrock, 1986) contains a chapter on students' thought processes, a new addition to this volume of educational research. Research shows that student perceptions can mediate the relationship of teacher behaviors to student achievement. This chapter includes many studies on students' thought processes that emphasize the need for understanding how students learn how to learn and how they can be taught to improve their thought processes to facilitate knowledge acquisition, learning, and memory.

The relevance of these studies to this topic lies in Wittrock's (1986) proposition that "the learner's perception of the teaching is the functional instruction that influences student learning and achievement" (p.298). For the purposes of this literature review, the following studies were be examined: studies on children's academic self-perceptions and expectations; self-perceptions of ability and achievement; perceptions of schools, teachers, and student teachers; perceptions of school tasks; perceptions of teachers' communication style; and,

children's perceptions of cognitive processes in the classroom.

Numerous researchers (Darakjan, Michael, & Knapp-Lee, 1985; Hansford & Hattie, 1982; Harter, 1983; Hattie, 1992) have demonstrated a modest but positive relationship between children's self-perceptions and academic achievement. Researchers consistently demonstrate that there is a relationship between students' self-evaluations and their level of academic achievement (Byrne, 1984, 1986; Chapman, 1988; Harper & Purkey, 1993; Hoge & Renzulli, 1993).

From the early elementary school years, children perceive their academic performance positively (Stipek, 1981). In the third or fourth-grade, the children's perceived school performance begins to correlate positively with their teacher's evaluations of their ability (Nicholls, 1979). The feedback teachers offer to students about their academic performance seems to be related to students' self-perceptions of ability. Wittrock (1986) suggests that children are not only capable of perceiving feedback from the teacher about their academic performance, but their perceptions of teacher feedback seem to influence their expectations about their future school performances.

Livesley and Bromley (1973) focused on describing, by means of free descriptions and content analysis, elementary

and adolescent children's perceptions of others. Three hundred and twenty children (ages 7 to 15) were asked to write free descriptions about eight people known to them--a man; a woman; a boy and a girl they liked; and a man, a woman, a boy and a girl they disliked. The changes in content were greatest between the ages of 7 and 8 years. Children under the age of 7 or 8 years described people in terms of external, readily observable attributes (e.g., appearance, life history, and physical condition).

Between the ages of 8 and 12 years there was a rapid growth in psychological vocabulary (e.g., mutual interactions, social roles, evaluations, and specific behavioral inconsistencies). Children's descriptions of liked persons were less factual than those of disliked people; more explanatory statements were made about disliked people possibly because the children were trying to justify their feelings (Livesley & Bromley, 1973).

This landmark study of children's perceptions of others provided evidence of the developmental changes in the way younger and older children perceive and "explain" behavior. Even young children can explain simple forms of behavior; it is not until the age of 9 or 10 years that children are able to use motivational concepts to explain their perceptions of others' behavior (Livesley & Bromley, 1973).

Another group of researchers (Brattesani, Weinstein, & Marshall, 1984; Marshall & Weinstein, 1986; Weinstein, Marshall, Brattesani & Middlestad, 1982; Weinstein, Marshall, Sharp, & Botkin, 1987; Weinstein & Middlestadt, 1979) have been interested in how students perceive and interpret teachers' behaviors toward different students in the classroom. In Weinstein and her colleagues' empirical work, children report that compared to high achievers, low achievers receive more negative feedback and teacher directness, and more messages related to a work and classroom rule orientation.

Children perceived high achievers as receiving more attention by the teacher, more opportunities and choice of activities in the classroom, and higher expectations from the teachers. One of the most impressive findings of these studies is that even children in the early elementary grades believe that teachers treat high and low achievers differently (Weinstein et al., 1987). Weinstein & Middlestadt (1979) found that there are differences among younger (Grade 1-3) and older (Grade 4-6) students' perceptions of teachers' differential treatment. Younger students thought that teachers criticized high achievers more, and older students thought teachers criticized low achievers more.

The early development and socialization of children's achievement perceptions have been studied by a number of researchers (Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1991; Harold et al., 1989; Wigfield et al., 1990). Results from a three-year cross-sectional study (Grades K, 1, and 3) show that the relations between students' beliefs and teachers' beliefs are stronger in the mathematics, reading, and sports domains (especially at Grade 2 and Grade 4) than in the social and music domains (Wingfield & Harold, 1992).

In Grade 4 children's beliefs in mathematics and reading came closer to the teachers' beliefs in those areas than in the other two grades. This finding verifies Nicholls' (1979) findings that children's perceptions of their reading attainment become increasingly highly correlated with their school grades as they get older. Wingfield & Harold (1992) suggest the above finding could be attributed to the fact that teachers at Grade 3 or Grade 4 provide relatively consistent and realistic messages to children about their performances and children may incorporate them into their self-perceptions. Another reason could be that teachers' beliefs have a stronger impact at this grade level because of children's' shifting beliefs about ability.

Nicholls (1979, 1984) suggested that children around the age of ten start to view ability as being more stable

rather than modifiable. The combination of changes in the nature of children's perceptions of ability, the stronger relations between children's ability perceptions and actual performance, and the increased focus on competitive performance in school may make it likely for children to internalize the teachers' perceptions and expectations of them in the middle to upper elementary school years (Wingfield & Harold, 1992).

Although there is evidence that suggests that students' self-perceptions are influenced by teachers' perceptions of them, the studies reported here are correlational in nature, so causality cannot be implied. What is needed is research on *how* students' interpret their teachers' perceptions about them in daily classroom interactions. Such research may reveal more information about how students apply their understanding to a situation or experience, which in turn may explain the way they think their teacher thinks of them.

Sainsbury (1992) states that the individual's perspective constitutes the fundamental prerequisites for communication. She asserts that it is the responsibility of the teacher to provide a learning environment in which misunderstandings are minimized. According to Sainsbury (1992), if the goal of education is "understanding on the

part of the students, it must be education by means of meeting of perspectives." (p.114)

Darley and Fazio (1980) discussed how individuals actively construct and interpret each other's behavior based on their ongoing social interactions and on information they might have about each other. They suggest that individuals make personal or situational inferences to interpret each other's behavior. If, for example, a student accepts the teacher's beliefs about him/her, that student might adjust his/her behavior to reflect the teacher's beliefs. An interesting question here is "At what point do children begin to make reasons for theirs and their teachers' behavior?"

Wingfield and Harold's work (1992) and Weinstein's and her colleaques' work (Weinstein 1985, 1989) suggest that "relations between teacher beliefs and student self-perceptions exist quite early on in elementary school, but to date we know less about how students actually interpret the messages they receive from teachers" (Wingfield & Harold, 1992, p.114). A clearer understanding of the participants in classroom research can eventually help those participants to understand each other more fully (Morine-Dershimer, 1985).

How students perceive their assigned school tasks influences their motivation to learn and their perceptions

of themselves as learners (Ames, 1992). Marshall (1994), in her study on children's understanding of academic tasks, argues that a methodology that unfolds children's understanding of classroom events (e.g., observations, interviews) may provide researchers with a new perspective of how students learn. Such a perspective might help teachers reflect on their classroom practices (Marshall, 1992). Marshall (1994) calls for more studies of how children understand their classroom world, more in-depth studies with a greater number of students, in order to document in detail potential changes in children's understanding over time and contexts.

During the past two decades, researchers have paid increasing attention to students' perceptions of schooling as a means of evaluating educational efforts and programs (Klein, Kantor, & Fernie, 1988; Levine & Wang, 1983; Weinstein, 1983; Wittrock, 1986). Duke (1977) postulated that students' perceptions of what happens to and around them in school provide helpful information to researchers and practitioners.

Lisa Wing (1995) used qualitative methods of participant observation and in-depth interviews to explore kindergarten, first and second-grade students' perceptions of classroom activities such as work and play. Data indicated that young children negotiate meaning from the

events, situations, and interactions in their classrooms, and in doing so they form a framework around which they understand what they do in school.

Wing (1995) observed children in their actual classrooms for a year and conducted in-depth interviews with 14 children from each classroom. Constant comparative method and taxonomic analysis revealed information about relationships among patterns in children's perceptions of work and play. This study showed that children considered activities to be work or play if the activities were obligatory or not. Work involved any activities that were designed or directed by teachers. Work also involved any activities about which teachers had certain expectations of the outcomes of the children's efforts. Any activity that required no specific product as an outcome or that the teacher was not directly involved in was considered to be play. Any activity that could be abandoned at will was characterized as play, but the need to finish an activity was perceived as work.

Older children characterized activities "in between" working and playing (Wing, 1995). Children's perceptions were not entirely consistent with those of the researchers and teachers. Play was not work. Children were able to pick up subtle messages from the classroom teacher and context in constructing their views of work and play.

"Work is what you want, play is what I want." (Wing, 1995, p.243).

Bruno (1995) examined at-risk high school students' perceptions of school. He found that the students who participated in his study did not perceive themselves as being connected to school or society, and that they perceived their time in school as "doing time" in the classroom. The findings in his study indicated that at-risk students preferred nondirected, time-consuming activities (i.e., hanging out, video games, watching TV, etc.). An interesting finding in this study is that the at-risk students showed a lack of recognition and connectedness between past, present, and future events in their lives. Students' perceptions of school (i.e., "doing time") affected not only their attitudes toward school, but carried implications for their success in school, learning, and future.

Levy, Wubbels, and Brekelmans (1992) examined the relationship between characteristics of students and teachers and their perceptions of teacher communication style. There was a wide discrepancy between students' and teachers' perceptions of teacher communication style. In addition, there was a wide discrepancy between both students' and teachers' view of reality and teachers' ideals. Although this study is not directly related to

students' self-perceptions and meta-perceptions, its findings carry implications about discrepancies between teacher and student perceptions. These findings stress the need for studying students' perspectives and including them as part of teachers' reflective practice.

The studies reviewed in this section have contributed to our knowledge of the role of students' perceptions in the classroom. Despite these valuable contributions, and their view of students' perceptions mediating students' achievement, there remain questions about the ways in which students define and assign meaning to their classroom experiences and their definitions of self and others.

Students' "Voices" in the Classroom

Studies about students' construction of meaning in the classroom are reviewed in the following section. Evidence will be presented about students' understanding of gender, schooling, reading and writing, language and literacy, and knowledge.

Sociolinguists (Cook-Gumperz 1986; Green & Allexsaht-Snider, 1990; Green & Bloome, 1983; Green, Kantor, & Rogers, 1991; Green & Wallat, 1981a; Green & Weade, 1987, 1990; Weade & Green, 1986) have described the complexities of language and culture in the classroom and have shown that little is known about how the child as listener

interprets the language of the classroom culture, how personhood and identity are constructed within and across particular cultural groups.

Kantor, Davies, Fernie, & Murray (1994) investigated, both in America and Australia, how children understand what it means to be gendered, as they also try to fit in the cultural role of student and peer in preschool classrooms. Using multiple ethnographic methods (i.e., field notes, video recordings, and interviews) they found that children were capable of negotiating their memberships as students, peers, and gendered persons within their classroom contexts.

Children became gendered students and peers through interpreting the "fine print" of daily discourse and interaction and by the positions made available and taken up by both adults and children. They were collaborative and constructive in creating their social worlds (Kantor, et al., 1994).

The ethnographic approach--adopted and adapted by all of the above researchers--to the study of students' perspectives reveal that knowledge in schools is personally and socially constructed and that learning is fundamentally a matter of inquiry and interpretation rather than memorization of facts (Yeager, Floriani, & Green, 1995).

The above studies share a common interest in understanding students' *emic*, or insider, views of schooling and understandings of their worlds (Andrade & Moll, 1993) and recognize that children's interpretations of their experiences are valid in and of themselves (Andrade, 1995). Andrade (1995), in her study of life in elementary schools, recommends the use of participant observation and dialogue journals for researchers who wish to learn from people (Spradley, 1980). She advocates that children are active agents in the creation of their social world and states that

> we cannot understand adult-child relationships within the home, school, and community without understanding the children's community (Andrade, 1995, p.176).

Dahl (1995) observed, listened to, and analyzed inner-city children's reading and writing in kindergarten and first grade classrooms in her efforts to understand young children's early reading and writing experiences in school. The results of her studies (Dahl, 1993; Dahl & Freppon, 1994; Dahl, Purcell-Gates, & McIntyre, 1989; Purcell-Gates & Dahl, 1991) show that children connect what they experience in school with who they think they are: i.e., their efforts, knowledge, and things they are interested in. Her work suggests that researchers and educators become attentive to what children value as learners and

carefully consider their perspectives "if we are to genuinely support their learning." (Dahl, 1995).

The Santa Barbara Discourse Group (1992) studied how students and teachers construct their social worlds in the classroom. They argue that there is a need for unique research methodologies that are developed specifically to address the nature of students' learning processes in the classroom process. Although their work has focused in the use of language, literacy, social construction of student and teacher roles and identity, their efforts to explore students' "voices" have stimulated research in students' perspectives of classroom life. The definitions of self and others that students and teachers construct are reflected in the process and content of their interactions, the access to classroom resources, and the goals of the participants within the interactions (Green, Kantor, & Rogers, 1990; Collins & Green, 1990).

Denny Taylor (1993) advocates that in order to construct effective evaluation programs for students and schools, more research needs to be done to understand students' perspectives:

> To evaluate, we need to build descriptions of children as they participate in the social construction of their own environments. The ways in which we develop our explanations should be analytic and well trained (Taylor, 1993, p.171).

Taylor (1993) examined a number of elementary school age children's points of view through participant observations, children's written stories and analysis of literature, children's journals, and interviews. She viewed a child's point of view as a source of knowledge for key educational decision-making. Her rich observations and ethnographic portraits of the learners' world provide support for her argument that designing appropriate curriculum, instruction, and assessment requires that we understand the complex ways children construct their own literacy and learning environments in their everyday classroom lives.

Taylor (1993) stresses the need to view students as informants and to intimately know the environments in which their knowledge is constructed. She calls for inviting students' perspectives to shape our evaluations of their performance and education in general and highlights the point that when examining students' perceptions, researchers should be concerned not only with how closely students come to their teacher's actual perceptions of them, but should be more concerned with *how* they construct their perceptions and *how* they formulate meaningful classroom experiences.

Lytle and Cochran-Smith (1992) state that it is the teachers' expertise that creates significant ways of

knowing the particular complexities of their students'
everyday classroom experiences, the ways students
participate in problem solving situations, and how their
students' learning can be supported in school. Through
their social interactions, teachers and students construct
classroom life and opportunities for academic and
interpersonal learning (Bloome & Greene, 1984; Cochran-
Smith, 1984).

Students and teachers negotiate what counts as
knowledge--subject, interpersonal, social--in the classroom
and how knowledge is generated, challenged, and evaluated
(Cochran-Smith, 1993). If researchers and educators are to
better understand how students' ideas about self, others,
and learning are constructed in school, they need to be
examining students' learning and their social world from
within and across the student's individual and shared
perspectives (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1992; Taylor, 1991,
1993).

An interesting question arises as a result of the
above perspective and findings: "How is a researcher
supposed to intimately know the perspective and world of a
learner unless that researcher observes, participates in,
and asks the learner to express--verbally or in written
form--his/her view of the everyday classroom world?"
Taylor (1991) states that "If we *really* want to know about

the children in our classrooms, ethnographic observations in classrooms can tell us more than any test." (p.18)

Sociolinguistic research has helped make *visible* the ways that communities of learners socially construct understandings. The above research has shown that learning from students' voices is not just a matter of handing a student a survey and asking him/her to fill it in.

> Learning from our student voices--in the fullest sense-- requires major shifts on the part of teachers, students, and researchers in the ways of thinking and feeling about the issues of knowledge, language, and power (Oldfather, 1995, p.87).

The studies reviewed in this section have contributed to our knowledge of children's construction of meaning and knowledge and have directed and stimulated much needed naturalistic research on students' perspectives. Despite their valuable contributions, there remain some gaps in our understanding of how students assign meaning and interpret their daily classroom experiences with their teachers.

Students' Meta-Perceptions

A final group of recent --and some not so recent-- studies are reviewed in this section to address the issue of students' interpretations of their teachers' perceptions of them. Evidence is presented about studies of students' perceptions of teachers' feelings about them, students' perceptions of teachers' evaluations and teachers' actual

evaluations, and students' self-concept of ability and perceived evaluations of others.

What do others think of us? How do we know? When people form an opinion about what others think of them, are they likely to be right? How do their interpretations of others' perceptions relate to their own self-perceptions? The question of whether people know how others view them has been of importance in clinical psychology, personality psychology, social psychology, and sociology (Kenny, 1994).

In sociology, the symbolic interactionist approach (Cooley 1902; Mead, 1934) proposes that our very selves are an outcome of our perceptions of how others view us. Cooley (1902) introduced the term "looking-glass self" to describe the process by which a person looks into the eyes and minds of significant others and imagines how they view him/her.

Symbolic interactionists assume that "meta-perceptions"-- or "reflected appraisals"--are usually accurate (Kenny, 1994). Evidence from clinical psychology shows that depressed individuals are "right on target" with their insistence that others do not like them (Lewinsohn et al., 1980). Pozo, Carver, Wellens, & Scheier, (1991) have shown that socially anxious people think that others take an especially dim view of them.

When examining meta-perceptions, it is important to consider that what others think of us is not always available or clear. In sharing our views of others with others, sometimes people are reluctant to convey bad news (Swann, Stein-Seroussi & McNulty, 1992) or good news (Felson, 1980). Moreover, some people may wish to see in others what makes them feel good about themselves (Swann, 1990).

Given the difficulty of monitoring and accurately assessing others' views of people in social interactions, people may use other sources of information to form "meta-perceptions". Felson (1981, 1992) has suggested that people may observe their own behavior, form their own judgments about their own behavior, and assume that others would judge that behavior as they do.

Kenny and DePaulo's study (1990) showed that there was a strong positive correlation between how subjects viewed themselves and how they thought others saw them. This implies that people's perceptions of how others perceive them are based primarily on their self-perceptions. This is opposite of what the symbolic interactionists suggest. They postulate that self-perceptions are products of the beliefs about how the self is viewed by significant others; self-perceptions are the reflection of what one "sees" in other people's eyes.

The above studies suggest that people form interpretations about others' views about them by depending very little on feedback from others. Instead, they directly observe their behavior and infer from it what others might be thinking of them. According to Kenny (1995), "symbolic interactionists have the direction of causality exactly wrong, at least for adults." (p.176)

What are the implications of the above studies for children and their meta-perception process? How about the role of significant others and their views of children on children's development of self? To take it a step farther, how are self-perceptions developed? Are they developed in isolation? Should researchers be more concerned with accuracy rather than identifying the ways in which children view others' perceptions of them and the implications of their meta-perceptions for their personal, interpersonal, academic, and social development?

The results of the preceding studies are not generalizable to elementary school settings, for the subjects in the reported studies were college undergraduates. Work with other populations in a variety of contexts may help researchers to learn if people know what kinds of perceptions others form of them. Children rely on parents, teachers, and others for feedback and direction. How children interpret their significant

others' perceptions of them may help us improve student learning and help students create positive identities.

Davidson and Lang (1960) examined the relationship between fourth-grade through sixth-grade students' perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them and students' self-perception, academic achievement, and classroom behavior. A significant positive relationship (r=.82) between children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings towards them and their self-perceptions was reported. Phillips (1963) reported a close correspondence between third-through sixth-grade students' perceptions of their teachers' evaluations about them and the students' self-evaluations (there was no correspondence for third grade students and r=.57 for sixth grade students). Brookover, Thomas, and Patterson (1964) showed that students' self-concept of ability was significantly and positively related with students' perceived evaluations of their teachers perceptions about them.

On the other hand, another set of studies (Miyamoto & Dornbush, 1956; Orpen & Bush, 1974; Quarantelli & Cooper, 1966; Sherwood, 1965; Walhood & Klopfer, 1971) suggest that there is a minimum association between one's self-perceptions and perceptions of others' evaluations because people do not perceive others' perceptions accurately. Calsyn and Kenny (1973) examined the relationship between

self-concept of ability and perceived evaluations of others. They reported that there is no evidence that perceived evaluations of others are causally predominant over self-concept of ability. Instead, the actual evaluations made by teachers are causally predominant over perceived evaluations of others, self-concept of ability, educational plans, and aspirations.

Conclusion

Although the studies reviewed in this chapter provide evidence about the role of students' interpretations of their teachers' perceptions about them for students' self-perceptions, there are a number of questions that still remain unanswered. How do students construct their interpretations of the teacher's perceptions about them? What elements from their daily classroom interactions do they select and how do they organize them to form an interpretation? Do their interpretations affect their classroom interactions with the teacher? If yes, how do students' interpretations relate to their interactions with the teacher in the social setting of the classroom?

The present study attempts to answer some of the above questions by examining how fourth-grade students perceive themselves and interpret their teachers' perceptions about them in the class.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

<u>Introduction</u>

If one wishes to understand the term *holy water*,
one should not study the properties of water,
but rather the assumptions and beliefs of the
people who use it. That is, water derives its
meaning from those who attribute a special
essence to it.
    Thomas S. Szasz, Ceremonial Chemistry (in
    Krawthwohl, 1993, p. 311)

The word *qualitative* implies an emphasis on processes

and meanings that are not strictly examined or measured (if

measured at all) in terms of quantity, frequency, or

intensity. Qualitative research involves an interpretive,

naturalistic approach to understanding phenomena,

experiences, and meanings in individuals' lives (Denzin &

Lincoln, 1994; LeCompte, Millroy, & Preissle, 1992).

Qualitative researchers study things in their natural

settings, attempting to interpret phenomena in terms of the

meanings people bring to them. They pursue answers to

questions that emphasize how people's social experiences

are created and assigned meaning. This is in contrast to

quantitative research which stresses the measurement and

analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Guba (1990) argues that reality can never be adequately understood or captured, only approximated through multiple methods and well-developed evaluation criteria. This kind of research is naturalistic, observational, descriptive, open-ended, and in-depth research. Why do such research to investigate students' self-perceptions and interpretations of their teachers' perceptions about them in the social setting of the classroom? Such research will enable the researcher to examine the *inner* experiences, perspectives, perceptions, and interpretations of fourth-grade children, from the point of view of the children, in their actual social classroom settings.

In this study the researcher adopted and adapted a symbolic interactionist perspective grounded in Blumer's (1969) symbolic interactionism theory. Mead's work (1934) was made popular by Blumer, who first constructed the term "symbolic interactionism" in 1937. Blumer (1969) stated three main principles: (a) people act toward things on the basis of the *meanings* that those things have for them, (b) the attribution of meaning to objects through symbols (i.e., signs, language, gestures, or anything that conveys meaning) is a continuous *process*, and (c) meaning is

of human lived experience, and posits that lived experience
is rooted in people's shared, intersubjective meanings,
interpretations, actions, and interactions (Blumer, 1969;
Mead, 1934; Prus, 1996).

Central to this approach is the notion that human life
is community life; it is intersubjective life in essence,
and it cannot be understood apart from the community or
context in which people live and operate on a daily basis
(Prus, 1996). People's intersubjective realities are
constructed in social interactions through the individuals'
actions, perceptions, interpretations, and symbolic
meanings. People become reflective through interaction
with others and by taking the viewpoint of others with
respect to oneself (Prus, 1996).

Following Janesick's (1994) criteria for qualitative
design, this study was qualitative in the following ways:
(1) It was holistic: it looked at the larger picture
(children's personal and interpersonal development in
school) and started with a search for understanding of the
whole (child-school). (2) It looked at relationships within
the social setting of the classroom (e.g., students' self-
perceptions and their interpretations of teacher's
perceptions about them). (3) It focused on the personal,
face-to-face experiences (i.e., children's personal
interpretations of their daily classroom interactions with

the teacher). (4) It focused on understanding (rather than predicting about) the social setting of two fourth-grade classrooms. (5) It demanded the study of settings and their participants over time. (6) It required equal amounts of time and effort spent in the field and on analyzing the data. (7) It required the researcher to become the research instrument by observing and interviewing the participants. (8) It incorporated ethical principles and informed consent decisions. (9) It required ongoing analyses of the data. (10) It required the researcher to acknowledge her role, personal biases, and ideological preferences.

The primary focus of this study was to <u>learn from</u> fourth-grade students *how* they perceive themselves and *how* they interpret their teacher's perceptions about them in class. In order to learn from them, the researcher observed what they did (cultural behavior), listened to what they said (cultural knowledge), collected their written free responses (cultural artifacts), and went beyond all these to discover <u>what</u> meaning they assigned to their classroom experiences with the teacher (Spradley, 1980).

The Setting

Description of Site

The study was conducted in two fourth-grade elementary classrooms in a fairly large city in Florida. The school was established in 1934 and was located in a working class area. The 334 member student body was 69% Caucasian, 21% African-American, 7% Hispanic, and 3% other. The school population represented families from the lower to the upper socio-economic groups.

In the school there were two classrooms each for grades three through five, five for primary grades (first grade and second grade combined), two for kindergarten, and one pre-kindergarten classroom. Aside from self-contained classroom teachers, there were also an art teacher, a music teacher, a counselor, a curriculum specialist, a gifted and academic resource teacher, a science teacher, a physical education teacher, and a speech therapist. In addition to classrooms, the physical facilities included a gymnasium; an auditorium; a library; an art, music, and science room; and a lunchroom/cafeteria.

Selection of Site

This study was conducted in two fourth-grade classrooms. The selection of the classrooms was guided by several criteria that reflected this project's objectives.

The criteria for classroom selection were as follows: (a) two fourth-grade classrooms were chosen for purposes of comparison. Also, children at the fourth-grade level can handle abstract information more easily than at earlier ages (Flavell, et. al, 1968; Piaget, 1970), are able to take the perspective of the other (Damon, 1977, 1981; Selman, 1980), have well-developed vocabulary, can go beyond the information given (Damon, 1977, 1981; Selman, 1980), and the teacher is still an important socialization agent in their lives (Higgins & Parsons, 1983). (b) Classrooms in which students would have opportunities to interact with the teacher in a number of ways throughout the school day. (c) Teachers who would be comfortable having a researcher in their classroom for an extensive amount of time. No preexisting relationship or acquaintance existed between the researcher and the two participating teachers.

Entry and Access

Certain ethical research principles were considered in order to insure the research was conducted in an ethical manner. These principles involved protection of participants, especially minors, confidentiality, and participants' rights and obligations.

The researcher's first step prior to school entry was to seek approval of the project from the University of Florida Institutional Review Board. The form along with a copy of the Teacher Consent Form, Parent Consent Form, and the Child Assent Script were submitted in June, 1996 to the Board (see Appendix A). After approval of the project by the Board, in July 1996, the researcher contacted the participating school's principal to set an appointment for an initial meeting.

The meeting took place in August, 1996 at the school. During the meeting an outline of the project (including a description, purpose, significance, design, methods, procedures, and a timeline) were presented to the principal. In addition to the above, the researcher explained her reasons for selecting fourth-grade and her role in the classroom. The principal stated that she would like both teachers to participate because they work as a team. The principal was interested in the project and showed great appreciation for the topic and the proposed research. The researcher assured the principal that she and the teachers, as well as the parents of the participating students, would have access to the study's findings.

The next step involved the completion and submission of a similar form developed by the participating elementary

school for official approval of the project. The principal
wished to present the project to the two fourth-grade
teachers herself, and she gave the researcher her informal
permission to conduct the study in the school. The
principal contacted the researcher the following day and
informed her that the teachers were interested in the
project and were willing to have the study take place in
their classrooms. The researcher submitted the proposal
and other paperwork to the school's research office and
made arrangements to meet with each teacher individually.

During the meeting with the teachers the researcher
reviewed the project, its purpose, methodology, and
timeline. The researcher established that she would
observe each classroom for 10 hours each week until the
December holiday and that she would need to do interviews
with some of the children and the teachers. In addition,
the idea of free responses was introduced, and the teachers
suggested that the writing be done during the regular
journal writing time. It was agreed that the free
responses would start toward the end of September and would
end before the December holiday. A tentative schedule was
put together by the researcher, and a detailed monthly
schedule was given to both teachers during the first week
of observations. Teacher consent forms were given to the
teachers. In addition, parent consent letters were given

to the teachers, who sent them home the same week, and observations began the following week. The teachers provided the researcher with a weekly classroom schedule.

Participants

Sixty fourth-grade students and two fourth-grade teachers were the participants in this study. The main focus of this study was on the *students'* self-perceptions and their interpretations of the teachers' perceptions about them in class. The teachers were also used as "informants" because of their classroom interactions with the students and their knowledge of the classroom dynamics. According to Spradley, "Informants are a source of information. [T]he ethnographer [also] hopes to learn to use the native language in the way the informants do" (1979, p.25). The teachers provided information on how they interacted with students and the means they used to inform the students about their perceptions of them in class.

The student body of this school reflects the population of the state of Florida in terms of racial, ethnic, and income distribution. All 60 students enrolled in fourth-grade participated in this study. There were 15 girls and 15 boys in each class. There were 18 children identified as "gifted" who were distributed across the two

classes (10 from class A--seven girls, and three boys, and
eight from class B--three girls and five boys). One boy
from class B received language, speech, and Title 1
services. One boy from class A and two girls from class B
received services for severe learning disabilities, and
four children--a boy and a girl from each class--received
help with remedial work. The above information was
provided by the school's office and was based on results
from standardized testing, intelligence testing, and
diagnostic testing.

The teachers were two females, each with a Master's
degree in Education and four years of teaching experience.
They worked as a team; they planned and developed their
instructional objectives together, wrote parent letters
together, discussed their ideas together, decided on what
books to order and use for literature or mathematics and
borrowed and shared materials and supplies. They were also
actively involved with conferences, curriculum committees,
and presentations.

Their relationship with the researcher was one of
warmth, openness, and trust. The teachers welcomed the
researcher in their classrooms, invited her to come, stay,
or go as she pleased. They made the researcher feel
welcome from the beginning of the study. Many times they
asked the researcher her opinion about things like

welcome from the beginning of the study. Many times they asked the researcher her opinion about things like teaching, education in general, or what she thought about classroom activities. Occasionally, the teachers allowed the researcher to assist them by copying materials for them or helping out with classroom parties and festivities.

A full-time female intern was in each class until November 15. The interns were not asked to participate in this study because the focus of the study was on what the students thought their regular classroom thought of them. The teachers were in charge of their classrooms, and were present when the interns were teaching. The teachers made all curriculum and instructional decisions.

Classroom Organization

The studied classrooms were adjacent. A small office separated the two classrooms. This office was used by both fourth-grade teachers, as well as by the reading specialist and speech therapist when needed. A telephone, desks, a computer, and many planning materials were located in that room. Teachers and academic resource personnel had access to each fourth-grade classroom through that room. Children and adults (academic resources personnel, high school and college student volunteers) frequently passed from one classroom to the next. Small groups of children who needed

The fourth-grade classrooms were similar in size and arrangement. For the purposes of this study the researcher refers to the two social settings as classroom A and classroom B. As shown in Figures 1 and 2 (see pages 54 and 55), the classrooms were typical of many elementary rooms. A large dry erase board lined two-thirds of one long wall; the remainder of the wall was lined by a regular chalkboard used for posting key information from class discussions during writer's workshop and Florida history, and graphic organizers (i.e., KWLs (a type of graphic organizer), summary grids) on units they studied as a class during literature time. Both teachers used the dry erase board for announcements, daily schedules, homework, class goals, and teaching. Individual cubbie-holes lined both halves of another wall, while cupboards used to store books, rewards, and supplies, lined the other half.

One large bulletin board, on which children's work (e.g., stories, art, literature illustrations) was displayed, lined half of the third wall in each room. In classroom A there was a very large world map next to the bulletin board, and in classroom B, there was a chalkboard that was used for displaying a Florida state map and colorful, motivating posters reading. The North side of each room consisted of large windows. Children sat at
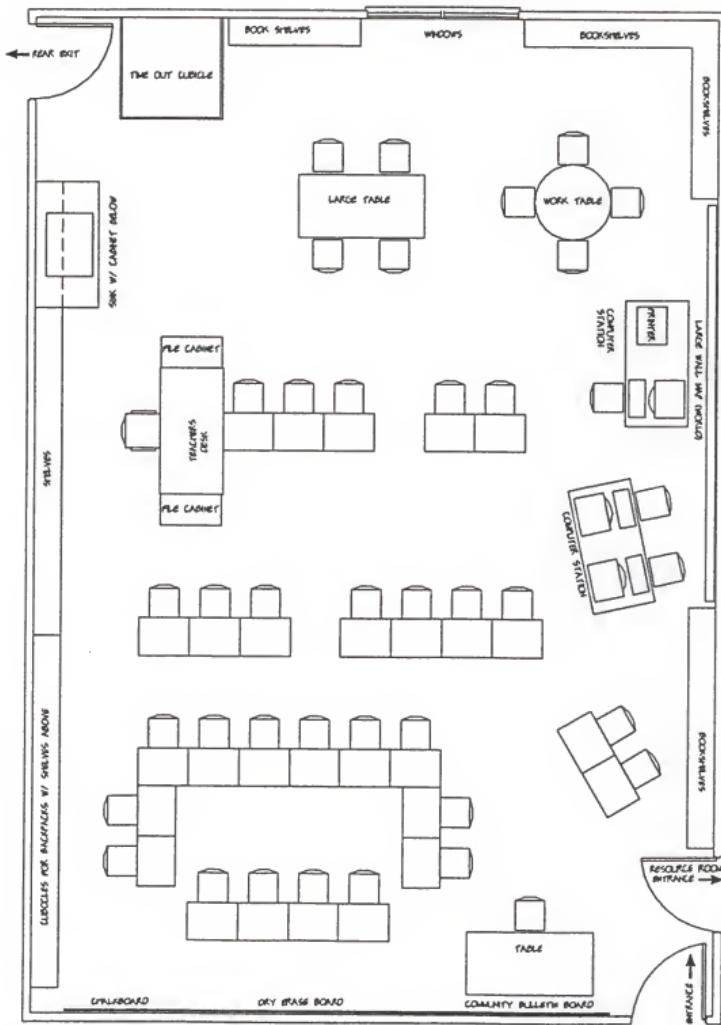
Figure 1. Floor Plan of Classroom A.
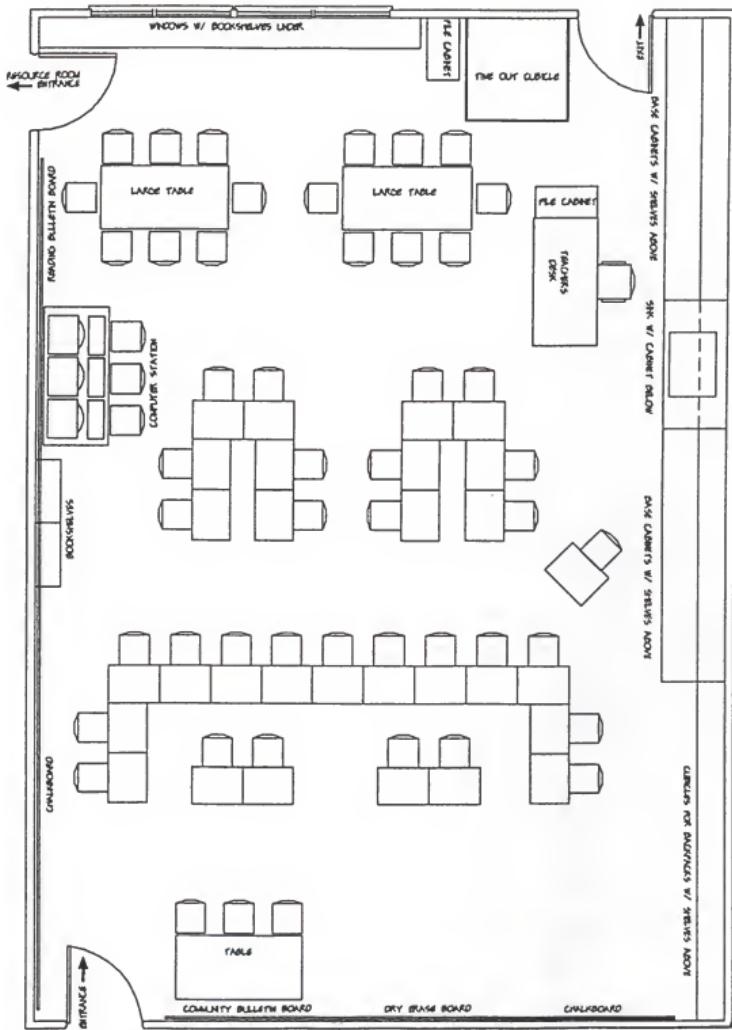
Figure 2. Floor Plan of Classroom B.

individual desks, the organization of which was shifted
many times during the first half of the school year.

The teachers' preferred seating plan consisted of two
to four (Teacher A) and four to six (Teacher B) desks
pushed together to form a rectangular surface. Some
students' desks were grouped and others' desks (seven to
nine) formed a long horseshoe arrangement. Both teachers
used a mixture of seating arrangements to accommodate
individual student needs. The seating arrangements were
determined by group dynamics and teacher and student needs.
The groups were heterogeneously formed in terms of gender,
race, or ability. Their structure was flexible which
allowed the teacher to move students as needed. The
seating plans in both rooms facilitated interactions among
the students.

Although students spent much of their day at their
desks, they worked at other locations too. Students were
placed in different groups (ranging from four to six per
group) for language arts, mathematics, social studies,
games, and art. Sometimes students were allowed to work
outside at the picnic table. Two large, adult size, tables
(one circular and one rectangular) were in the back of each
room. Those tables served as work stations for different

groups or for students who were sent by the teacher to work alone because of misbehavior.

The aforementioned area of the classroom was known as the "outer circle," a place where a student could "cool down," and put himself/herself together before re-joining the regular class activities. While in "outer circle," a student would at times take his/her work and complete it alone. Students at times would complete their work, take tests, and follow along from those tables; at other times some students would just sit at the table. The teacher decided when a student would move from "outer circle" back to his/her desk and vice versa. At other times children would go to that area to select a book from the classroom library, and during recess that area was also used for some students to catch up with their homework.

In addition, parent volunteers used the "outer circle" to file students' work and school/teacher announcements in the student folders. This was usually done on Fridays. Student volunteers also used it occasionally to work with children who needed help with their work. The researcher also was seated in that area of the classroom and moved only when children needed to use the tables for group work.

In each classroom there was a "time-out" desk located in the back of the room, approximately six feet behind the "outer-circle" area, by the back door. Students were sent

to the "time-out" to isolate themselves from the rest of the class, to think about their behavior, and to write a letter or apology to whoever else was involved in the event. A computer station, with three computers and one printer, was located on one side each classroom. Students used the computers during writer's workshop to publish their work, and during recess to play games. Teachers used the computers to write their own tests, outlines, handouts, parent letters, for bulletin board messages, and so forth.

Commercially-produced posters and book covers from different children's books were taped on cupboard doors. Posters of different sport teams were taped on the windows. The inside of each room's front door was decorated with student names and motivational messages in classroom A, and student names with sports messages in classroom B.

The classroom atmosphere in both rooms was comfortable and positive. Children were encouraged to interact with each other, go to the back and work alone when others were distracting them, pick a book from their classroom "library" when they had extra time, or help a student in need. Children were also involved in classroom activities. They collected or passed out papers, helped the teacher grade the class's "Mad Minute" sheets (timed mathematics facts exercises); helped clean the board, hamster cage, and the classroom; run copies of papers, passed out rewards,

helped others with work; delivered papers to the office;
led the line to the cafeteria, art, music, science,
physical education, and back; took notes about who talked
or misbehaved in line; and, helped run the class meetings.
These job roles and responsibilities were welcomed by the
children who seemed to execute their jobs and
responsibilities carefully. Parents and parent and student
volunteers visited the classrooms from time to time.

To better acquaint the reader with the classrooms'
schedule, a typical day is summarized. The teachers
arrived at school at 7:00 a.m. and from that time until the
children came in at 8:00 a.m., they would talk with each
other, copy papers, work on the computer, and take care of
other school responsibilities. The children lined up
according to grade in the ramp (where most parents dropped
them off) and walked to the classrooms as a group. School
supervision was provided. Many mornings the teachers went
up to the ramp and walked back with their classes.

The daily schedule along with a challenge
(mathematics, language, or geography) were always on the
board prior to the children's arrival. Once students
arrived in class, they put their backpacks in their cubbie-
holes and put their homework assignment sheets along with
their homework in the designated trays behind the teachers'
desks. The teachers took daily attendance and hot lunch

count. The folders were picked up by school personnel.
After the daily school announcements, which were sometimes
broadcast over the loud speaker and other times through
television, the pledge to the flag, and the daily
challenge, the regular class activities begun.

Mathematics was taught on a daily basis, with
mathematics games on Fridays. Social studies was taught on
Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday from 8:30 a.m. to 9:20 a.m.
Art was taught on Friday, physical education in Tuesday and
Thursday, and Music on Wednesday. Fourth-grade had
Language Arts (Spelling, Reading--Literature Groups--,
Writing Workshop) for two and a half hours every day except
Wednesday. Library visits and class meetings were held on
Wednesday, as needed. Little Buddies, an organizational
format in which fourth-graders were paired with younger
children to read a book, took place every other week.
Lunch was from 10:55 a.m. to 11:25 a.m., followed by
recesses (11:25 a.m. to 12:00 p.m.). The children were
dismissed at 2:30 p.m. and the teachers, usually, did not
leave until 5:00 p.m..

Research Methods

Overview

Students' self-perceptions and interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them were explored through a qualitative and naturalistic research approach. Spradley (1980) has developed a systematic set of procedures designed specifically for the exploration of meaning, called the <u>Developmental Research Sequence</u>. This particular model follows a <u>cyclical</u> pattern of investigation: the researcher selects a project, raises questions, collects data, makes a record, analyzes data, and writes the report. The sequence of questioning, collecting, recording and analyzing was repeated throughout the study. Data analysis was an integral part of the research cycle.

Questions are the fundamental element of this pattern of investigation as they direct the process of data collection. In this study, not only were questions posed prior to the study, but new questions were formulated throughout the research period. The researcher began the study without any precise hypotheses about degree of relationships, or cause-effect relationships between students' self-perceptions and their interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them in class. Instead, the researcher formulated some "foreshadowed questions"

(Wolcott, 1987) to direct her investigation. The following research questions were an outcome of the researcher's interests, experiences, and theory (Erickson, 1986):

1. In what manner do fourth-grade students perceive themselves? What is the content of their self-perceptions?

2. In what manner do fourth-grade students perceive their teacher's perceptions about them? What is the content of their interpretations?

3. What kind of information do fourth-grade students use to form interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them in class?

4. What is the role of classroom interactions in the construction of students' interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them in class?

While these questions guided the overall direction of this study, other questions also were asked during the course of the research. *Descriptive*, *structural*, and *contrast questions* led to different kinds of data in the field. These questions can be thought of as a funnel (see Figure 3).

Descriptive questions were broad questions used to get an overview of the classroom settings and what went on in those settings: i.e., "Who are the children in this classroom, What do they do, How is the classroom set up?". These questions enabled the researcher to get an overview of the two unfamiliar settings.
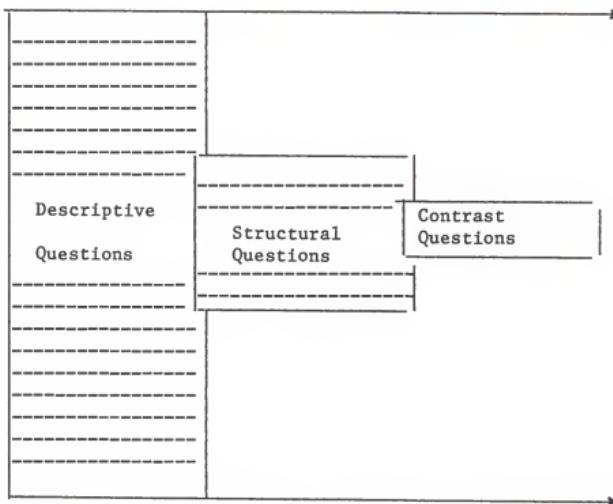
Figure 3. Ethnographic Questions (Spradley 1980, p.64)

Structural questions followed after an initial data analysis to add more depth and focus to previously identified actions, interactions, patterns of behavior, and events in the classrooms. For instance, it was found that some students asked more questions of the teacher during classroom discussions. A structural question posed by the researcher was, "How do students get information from the teacher which they may in turn use to form interpretations about the teacher's perceptions of them in class?" The researcher also observed that some children were called on by the teacher more often than others to participate in classroom discussions. As a result, the following structural question was formed "Which students get called on more often to participate in classroom discussions?". These and other structural questions were constructed repeatedly and the search for supporting evidence helped form even more focused observations, which in turn helped discover the specifics of every classroom.

After further analysis and repeated observations in the field, the researcher was able to narrow her investigation even further to make more selective observations. Contrast questions were the vehicle for such observations; they enabled the researcher to look for the existence of any differences among specific categories. According to Spradley (1980), this is the stage where

discovered differences are and more focused observations or talk to informants about these differences is required. Questions such as "What do you think about my story," or "Why do I have to re-write this," led to selective observations in which the researcher analyzed her field notes and conducted additional observations for differences in the kinds of information students received from the teacher when asking the above two questions.

Methods and Procedures

The researcher's goal was to examine and describe (a) how fourth-grade students perceived themselves, (b) how they interpreted their teacher's perceptions about them in class, (c) the kinds of information they used to construct their perceptions and interpretations, and (d) the nature of student-teacher classroom interactions. Perceptions are mental processes and thus are not directly assessed or easily observed as tangible behaviors. "In-the-head" analysis of human behavior is beyond our capability (Taylor, 1993). Because the meanings that individuals construct are never directly observable, researchers may infer meanings from observing the behavior of participants or interview participants directly about the meanings they ascribe to events or people (McDermott & Roth, 1978; Morine-Dershimer, 1985).

We have to allow children to become our informants, get to know them in their actual settings, build adequate descriptions of their environments, and focus on children's everyday experiences as they are expressed by the children themselves (Taylor, 1993).

One of the most challenging tasks in doing research is the selection of appropriate methods. Choosing methods that will enable researchers to deal with their problem and questions effectively is "an act of judgment" (Shulman 1981, p.12). Three methods were used in this study to collect data: *participant observation*, *interviews*, and *free responses*. Multiple methods were chosen because they allowed the researcher to: (a) ask a range of questions about the participants' perspectives in their actual classroom settings, (b) examine *how* students formed interpersonal perceptions, and (c) not impose restrictions on the form and expressiveness of the participants' answers.

Denzin (1970) advocated the use of multiple methods, or *triangulation*, which is defined as the "combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena" (Denzin 1970, p.279). The use of multiple methods of data collection reduces threats to validity in that weaknesses of one method are offset by strength of another. Triangulation enables the researcher to collect data that

of one method are offset by strength of another.
Triangulation enables the researcher to collect data that
may explain why data are different or contradictory from
different sources about the same phenomenon. *Data
triangulation* (the use of a variety of data sources in a
study) and *methodological triangulation* (the use of
multiple methods to study a phenomenon) were used in this
study.

Participant Observation

Participant observation is the most common data
collection method in qualitative studies. It enables one
to describe what goes on in a setting, who or what is
involved, when, where, and why things happen in social
situations. Jorgensen (1989) states that participant
observation is excellent for studying processes,
relationships among people and events, organization of
events and continuities and patterns in social contexts.
One of the greatest strengths of this method is the ease
through which researchers can gain *entree* to settings.
Because of its relative unobtrusiveness observation can be
conducted inconspicuously (Webb et al., 1966). Another
strength of participant observation is the minimal
potential for generating *observer effects* because of the
naturalness of the observer's role and the lack of

noticeably obtrusive of all research techniques (Phillips, 1985).

Participant observation is especially appropriate when: (a) little is known about a phenomenon; (b) the research problem is concerned with human meanings and interactions viewed from the insider's perspective (i.e., students' self-perceptions and interpretations of teacher's perceptions about them in class); (c) the researcher is able to gain access to an appropriate setting; and (d) the research problem can be addressed by qualitative data collected by direct observation and other means relevant to the studied setting (Jorgensen, 1989).

People make sense of the world around them in their daily interactions; they give meaning to their experiences and interact on the basis of these assigned meanings (Blumer, 1969; Denzin, 1978; Schutz, 1967). The insider's perspectives are not directly accessible to outsiders, or non members of a particular social setting. Thus, it is impossible for a researcher to obtain a well-developed and elaborate understanding of the participants' perspectives until the researcher understands the culture in which meanings are constructed (Hall, 1976; Spradley, 1980). Participant observation aims to understand, uncover, and reveal the meanings people use to make sense out of their everyday lives in their everyday, natural environments.

The methodology of participant observation requires that the researcher become directly involved in the participants' lives in order to understand their world from the standpoint of an insider. Human meaning and interaction is approached through sympathetic introspection (Cooley [1930] 1969). Participant involvement may range from a marginal role to the performance of an insider role. In this study the researcher's role was *overt* (with the knowledge of participants). Blumer (1982) states that the use of *covert* (without insider knowledge) observation as a method is "neither ethically justified, nor practically necessary" (p.217), and more attention should be given to access as "overt insider."

Both teachers in this study were aware of the researcher's purposes, and the students were told, by the researcher and the teachers, that the researcher wanted to determine how children think and what are the things they do in fourth-grade. The researcher's role was described to the students as "the lady who asks questions and who writes a lot." Many times during the study the students had to reminded of the researcher's role and purpose in their classroom, especially when children would ask the researcher to help them on assignments. Toward the end of the study, the teachers occasionally asked the researcher to help some students, always at the back of the room in

"outer circle," with spelling or homework. Children
usually asked the researcher for help with assignments
during recess and not during the regular classroom
instruction.

The researcher's degree of involvement varied both
with participants and classroom activities. Spradley
(1980) has proposed five types of participation that range
along a continuum of involvement (see Table 3-1):

Table 3-1

Degrees of Participant Involvement.

Non-Participation	Passive Participation	Moderate Participation	Active Participation	Complete Participation
• Researcher has no involvement with the people or the activities studied.	• Researcher does not participate or interact with other people to a great extent. Observes and records what's going on (Low Involvement).	• Researcher seeks to balance between being an insider and an outsider.	• Researcher seeks to do what other people are doing in order to better understand the culture.	• Researcher becomes an ordinary participant.

The researcher's participation in the two studied settings was passive (Spradley, 1980). During the first month of the project, the researcher rarely interacted with students inside or outside the classroom. She was stationed by the teachers in the classrooms' "outer circle" --the outskirts of the room--where she recorded observed activities.

Participant observers usually keep a log of activities and experiences, and also written records or tape-record observations while in the field or shortly after observations have been completed (Jorgensen, 1989). Action in the field has been recorded by way of audio, video, photographic equipment or computers. Researchers have also used questionnaires, formal or informal interviews, and document collection along with direct observations (e.g., Fine, 1987; Hochschild, 1983; Wallis, 1977). In this study, the researcher used an audio tape-recorder and hand-written field notes to record observed activities. She also used formal and informal interviews and free responses in order to better understand the participants' perceptions and interpretations. These strategies will be discussed in a subsequent section.

Each entry included a date, time, event, setting, and a detailed description of the activity and the participants involved. Field notes were kept in a field notebook which

also included the researcher's comments (theoretical, methodological, personal notes) and reactions to observed events. Field notes or audio tapes were not shared with the participants.

The researcher avoided any verbal or non-verbal communication with the children and ignored those who tried to get her attention by either staring, smiling at her, or trying to talk to her while in the classroom. As the study progressed, the interactions between students and the researcher increased and the researcher alternated between remaining at a fixed location and moving around the classrooms.

Although the earliest observations were targeted toward a general description of the classrooms and the participants, the majority of the observations were directed toward student-teacher interactions and activities. Although the children were observed interacting with other teachers (i.e., science teacher, art teacher, physical education teacher, reading specialist), the sole focus of the observations was on the interactions and events involving the "regular" classroom teacher and the students in their "regular" classroom settings.

The researcher observed (and tape-recorded) 190 hours of classroom activity over a four-month period in the Fall of 1996. Each classroom was observed for half a day twice

a week (approximately 10 hours per week) for four months. The researcher provided the teachers with a monthly schedule--developed with the teachers--of her visits, planned activities, and interview schedules. Field notes were analyzed by the researcher.

Interviews

Formal and informal interviews were used in this study to get a deeper understanding of the participants' perspectives (Spradley, 1980). All interviews were audio-taped and occurred with students and the two teachers. Eight children from class A (two boys and six girls) and thirteen children from class B (five boys and 10 girls) were interviewed. The researcher worked out a schedule that met each parent's schedule, and the children were interviewed at three different times (November, December 1996, and January 1997). Interviews with the children were held during after-school hours in the school library conference room. Teachers also were interviewed three times in their respective classrooms after school hours.

Formal interviews employ a structured schedule of questions that allows the researcher to ask specific questions in exactly the same way with different participants. Formal interviews produce a highly uniform set of data (Jorgensen, 1989). The researcher allowed a

certain flexibility in her interviews in order to allow children and teachers to clarify, elaborate on their answers, and even talk about events or things they were interested in. The interviews took the form of "guided conversations" (see Lofland, 1971). Interviewees spoke freely and in their own words about their perspectives and even volunteered unanticipated information (see Appendices E and F).

Informal interviews are casual, free flowing conversations that allow the researcher to interview participants without asking the same questions in the same manner. Informal interviews were recorded by paper and pencil, and they occurred when the researcher asked questions of the children during the course of participant observation. For instance, when children moved to form temporary work groups the researcher asked, "What are you doing?", "What do you think about this activity?" The informal interviews with the teacher took place during periods when the students were not in the room (i.e., lunch break, after school). The teachers talked eagerly about classroom activities, frequently asked the researcher what she thought about an observed event, and talked about children's progress or specific reactions to classroom events. These questions were elicited by an observed event and were useful for discerning different viewpoints held by the participants.

Audio-recordings are excellent for taking and making notes, for recording verbal interaction and interviews. Recorders are readily available, come in different sizes, are relatively inexpensive, and easy to operate. On the other hand, they are obtrusive especially at the early stages of entry in a setting. In this study, a tape-recorder was used three weeks after observations had started. The researcher wanted to get first familiar with the setting and allow the participants to get used to her presence in the classroom. A small tape-recorder was used in this study and it was placed by the researcher's notebook on the "outer circle" table. Some children occasionally visited the researcher in the back of the room and spoke right in front of the tape-recorder, but other than that the presence of the tape-recorder was normalized. Students and teachers forgot after a brief period that the recorder was running; they took its presence for granted.

In spite of the advantages of recorders for making notes, ultimately the tapes demand hours of transcription for analysis. Tapes were transcribed and analyzed by the researcher. The results of the analysis are discussed in the following chapter.

Free Responses

Free response is a projective technique that has been used extensively in personality and clinical research (Chandler & Johnson, 1991). A person's productions (verbal, written, or artistic) reflect his/her inner view of the world, and a systematic examination of those productions may help researchers learn something of the individual's needs, desires, and interests, as well as his/her perceptions of the significant others in his/her world. An analysis of such productions may lead to a better understanding of the individual (Chandler & Johnson, 1991).

Free response or sentence completion tasks employ a set of sentence stems to elicit oral or written responses. They are particularly useful devices for getting information on developmental aspects, interpersonal relations, needs, and threats. Free responses are brief, non threatening, and not different from other school-type tasks with which children are familiar (Chandler & Johnson, 1991). They are especially useful with older children (pre-adolescents and adolescents), "as children are often suspicious and defensive in testing situations, and often resist the more intensive methods of assessment." (Chandler & Johnson, 1991, p.36).

All fourth-grade students were asked to write their own free responses to the following stems:

1.   "I Think I Am. . ."

2.   "I Think Mrs./Ms._____ Thinks I Am. . ."

3.   "I Would Like To Know What Mrs./Ms._____ Thinks About Me When I. . ."

Students were given one stem per week, repeated for three months (October, November, December). The repetition of the writings enabled the researcher to discover insights and patterns and changes in the children's responses. The writing took place usually on Fridays during students' journal time. This activity was presented to students as a time where they could share their personal thoughts about themselves with the researcher and what they thought their teacher thought of them in class. Children were encouraged to write freely, not to worry about correct spelling of words, and to ask the researcher if they had any questions.

It was emphasized that whatever students wrote was confidential and private, and they were assured that their teacher or any other teacher would not see their responses. During this activity the teachers worked at their desks, the computer, or sometimes were outside the classroom taking care of administrative school matters. The teachers never suggested what the children should write nor did they

help children with spelling or anything else having to do
with this activity.

Manila folders were provided in order to prevent the
sharing of ideas. Writing paper was inserted in each
folder. Children wrote their names on the folder,
decorated it, and some even wrote "Confidential
Information," or "Private: Stay out of it," or "My Personal
Folder" on the outside. Each stem was written on the board
by the researcher who also read it aloud and then asked the
children to copy it on their paper. This activity lasted
for 10 to 15 minutes. No child was forced to write,
although the teachers encouraged all students to do so.
The amount and nature of responses varied from child to
child, with some children writing a word or two to others
writing a paragraph or two, and some others writing a page
or two.

Free writing allowed children to express their
personal thoughts in their own way; it allowed them to
"speak" for themselves. This technique provided the
researcher with information about the content, process, and
sources of information children used to form self-
perceptions and interpretations about their teacher's
perceptions of them in class.

Methodological Limitations

There are some inherent problems in participant observation that have to be addressed in order for the researcher to have confidence in the quality of the data collected. The issue of validity and reliability constitutes one of the chief criticisms against participant observation (Adler & Adler, 1992). Observers whose research is solely based on their observations and do not have the participants' quotes to enrich and confirm the researchers' analyses are susceptible to more biases from subjective interpretations of situations (Denzin, 1989; Webb et al., 1966).

Observations conducted systematically and repeatedly over time are more credible than those gathered according to personal patterns (Denzin, 1989). In this study, the researcher conducted lengthy observations in the two classroom settings and also investigated the participants' perspectives on various situations. Direct observation when added to other research can yield depth and breadth, and it can enhance a study's consistency and validity (Adler & Adler, 1992).

Other problems inherent in participant observation are: (a) effects of the observer's presence or activities on the phenomenon being observed; (b) effects from the

the inability of the observer to fully witness and record
all relevant aspects of the studied phenomenon (McCall &
Simmons, 1969). Bogdan and Biklen (1982) state that
"qualitative researchers attempt. . . to objectively study
the subjective states of their subjects" (p.42). The
qualitative researcher's main goal is to *add* knowledge and
not to pass judgment on a phenomenon or setting.
Qualitative researchers seek to limit the observer's
biases, since all researchers are affected by observers'
bias (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982).

The researcher guarded against her own biases by
recording numerous lengthy field notes and by including the
participants themselves in the study of this phenomenon.
The researcher also worked with participants who were
accustomed to having observers and visitors in their rooms,
such as parent volunteers, student teachers, student
volunteers, and aids. The fact that the participants were
familiar with having other people in their classroom made
the researcher's presence less intimidating. In addition,
the lengthy observation period (September to December)
enabled the researcher to become part of the classroom.
After the last interviews were completed, in January, the
children asked the researcher if she was planning to come
back and if they would ever see her again.

The fact that the researcher was stationed in each classroom's "outer circle" and that her role and activities were made clear to the children, made it easy for the children to not see her as another teacher. The children talked to other students, violated classroom rules, argued with the teacher, got into arguments with other students, sent notes to other students, and did a lot of the "regular" things children do in class in her presence. There were instances where some children "showed-off" for the researcher; for instance, one girl in classroom B read the ballad she had written at home to the researcher and asked her if she would like to keep it in her notes. The researcher's casual conversations with the teachers also confirmed her recording and perceptions of the classroom life.

The researcher dealt with her personal interests, remarks, and biases about the studied phenomenon through bracketing (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). The researcher's role and biases will be discussed in a subsequent section.

Lastly, the researcher's inability to observe and record *all* classroom events related to children's interpersonal perceptions was dealt with in three ways: (a) by doing lengthy observations in the classrooms the researcher was confident that she captured a representative description of relevant events, activities, and

interactions related to the studied phenomenon; (b) the teachers acted as valuable informants for events that had not been directly observed; (c) the researcher's use of a tape-recorder, interviews, and free-responses filled in gaps in observational data.

The interviews took place a month and a half after observations began, allowing time for the researcher and the participants to become familiar with one another. The researcher always asked for the children's permission to "talk" with them and reminded them that whatever they shared with her would be confidential. At times, some children were eager to talk with her because of something that had happened at school that day. Interview data was compared with written data (free responses) and with observational data.

Free responses were used because of their appropriateness in allowing children to share their own perceptions and interpretations. One limitation of this method is that some children wrote more or better than others; some wrote in complete sentences and others just listed single words. All three sources of data provided a means whereby the researcher could make a more comprehensive evaluation of the data collected.

Data Analysis

The data collected through observations, interviews, and free-responses were in written form. Written records included field notes, a research journal, transcribed interviews, and children's free-responses.

In this study, the researcher's goal was to examine how children perceived themselves and interpreted their teacher's perceptions of them in two fourth-grade classrooms. The choice of analysis methods was determined by the purpose of the research, the nature of the questions, and the theoretical perspective adopted and adapted by the researcher (LeCompte et al., 1992).

The data analysis was an ongoing process that consisted of analyzing and synthesizing information across data sources and data collection methods. The analyses carried out for this study make visible the construction of students' (a) self-perceptions and (b) interpretations of what their teacher thought about them in class (see Table 3-2). Analysis of this kind involves a way of "looking" at or thinking about data. It refers to the systematic and strategic examination of a phenomenon to discover its parts, the relationships among parts, and their relationship to the whole.

In this analysis, the researcher (a) *described* social situations (activities carried out by participants in a

particular place) and (b) *discovered* culture (the patterns of participants' behavior and they meanings they assign to activities), (Spradley, 1980). The phases of analysis for this study are described below (Spradley , 1980):

a.   <u>Domain analysis</u> helped to identify broad domains such as "Things the Teacher Talked About in Class, Things Students Talked About in Class, Things Students Talked About Themselves."

b.   <u>Taxonomic analysis</u> helped to identify how domains were organized. The researcher also attempted to find out how domains were related. For example, within the domain "Feedback Teacher Gave to Students," there was "Verbal Feedback and Written Feedback".

c.   <u>Componential analysis</u> helped the researcher to look for units of meaning participants assigned to their specific cultural categories.

d.   <u>Theme analysis</u> involved the search for a theme that would tie together the identified parts of the participants' perspectives. It focused the search for meanings across domains.

The analysis of data helped locate particular patterns of experiences that represent how students make sense of their everyday classroom experiences with the teacher. The main type of relationship in the domain analysis was *strict inclusion* (see Table 3-2).

Table 3-2

Strict Inclusion Example

RELATIONSHIP	FORM	EXAMPLE
Strict Inclusion →	X is a kind of Y →	Playing the guitar (is a kind of extra curricular activity)

Table 3-3 shows the type of worksheet used to help visualize the structure of each domain:

Table 3-3

Domain Analysis Worksheet

1. **Semantic Relationship**: strict inclusion

2. **Form**: X is a kind of Y

3. **Example**: Being good in science (is a kind of) ability

Included terms	Semantic Relationship	Cover Term
Being good in writing		
Being good in reading } →	is a kind of →	ability
Being good in math		

The researcher analyzed and counted each student's written statements. Statements were grouped according to content, and broad categories were formed. Finally, broad categories were grouped to form specific categories. The content and domain analyses were interweaved. The reseacher took a frequency count of students' statements in order to explore differences in quality as well as quantity of students' responses. Students' verbal statements were analyzed for content.

The researcher coded students' written and oral reports by assigning pseudonyms and numbers. For example, (BF21.2) means: this statement came from a female (F) student in class (B); the student's assigned number was 21; and she gave this statement at time two. This coding system made it easy for the researcher to maintain the students' confidentiality, readily retrieve information from data, and study patterns in students' responses over time. Teachers were also given pseudonyms. Teacher A was called Ms. Naylor, and Teacher B was called Mrs. Cleary.

Audio-taped classroom observations were transcribed. The transcription involved three phases: (a) description of events, (b) interpretation of events, and (c) extension of events. The following transcript conventions were used:

```
(2, 3, or 4s)= number of seconds without verbal discourse
Sx= unidentified student
Ss= more than one student speaking, all unidentified
XXX= inaudible
```

The three-phased analysis of the verbatim transcripts showed how everyday classroom interactions between students and their teacher provided opportunities for students to co-construct interpretations about their teacher's perceptions about them in class. Findings from the transcription data were triangulated with findings from students artifacts and interview data to validate and expand on how students formed their interpersonal perceptions. Field notes were used to give additional background information about classroom interactions. Table 3-4 (see p. 88) summarizes the research questions, data collection, and analysis in this study.

The Researcher's Role and Biases

The qualitative researcher is the key research instrument in qualitative research. The researcher's biases, methods, and training may influence data collection and analysis. Wolcott (1975) stated that a researcher must be flexible, sensitive, a keen observer, sociable, sensitive to and perceptive of the participants' needs, be

Table 3-4

Research Questions, Data Collection, and Analysis

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	DATA COLLECTION	ANALYSIS
1. In what manner do fourth-grade students perceive themselves? **What is the content of their self-perceptions?**	• Student artifacts (i.e., free responses) • Interviews	• Domain, taxonomic analysis • Content analysis
2. In what manner do fourth-grade students perceive their teacher's perceptions about them? **What is the content of their interpretations?**	• Student artifacts (i.e., free responses) • Interviews	• Domain, taxonomic analysis • Content analysis
3. **What kind of information do** fourth-grade students use to form **interpretations** of their teacher's perceptions about them in class?	• Interviews	• Content analysis
4. What is the role of **classroom interactions** in the construction of students' interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them in class?	• Classroom observations (i.e., field notes, audio-taped classroom interactions)	• Transcription of recorded classroom interactions

able to "tell" his/her story effectively, and have experience conducting fieldwork.

Whether a researcher chooses to be a full participant or fully a non-participant, he or she must put himself or herself into the research and interpret what he/she sees, hears, or is told to by others (Woods, 1992). By observing, taking notes, tape-recording, talking to participants, reflecting on data, and some initial analysis, the researcher makes indications, attributes meanings, and interprets symbols continually. How a researcher does this depends on the self he/she brings to the situation and its' interpretation: the experiences, interests, values, "theories", training, attitudes toward the participants, and commitment to research (Woods, 1992).

A standard problem for qualitative researchers is the one between involvement and increased familiarity on the one hand and distance and objectivity on the other. The demands of qualitative research create a tension between "getting inside" and "being outside", and "knowing nothing, to knowing some things, to knowing too much" about the participants and their world. Involvement and objectivity are both ingredients of scientific appraisal, but "too much of a good thing" may interfere with the "healthy" progress of one's research. Woods (1992) suggests that researchers can guard against these dangers by maintaining

a social distance through triangulation of methods to increase validity, reflectivity outside the situation, and the writing up of field notes and research memos.

Although the researcher's ability to negotiate access, sensitivity to participants' needs, perception of classroom events, flexibility, and writing skills will have to be judged by the reader, the following information related to the above criteria are discussed below:

1.   The researcher was an elementary classroom teacher for one year and has been a college instructor for ten years.

2.   The researcher earned a Master's degree in educational psychology.

3.   The researcher has completed coursework for a Ph.D. in instruction and curriculum, including courses in elementary curriculum, social psychology, qualitative and quantitative research methods, and evaluation of teacher education programs.   The researcher has read extensively in the area of qualitative research foundations and methods in the United States and the United Kingdom.

5.   The researcher has completed two qualitative studies in the USA and a qualitative study in the UK.   A report of one study was written and was presented at a Qualitative Research Conference.

6.   The researcher has extensive experience as an elementary classroom observer by supervising student teachers over a five-year period.

8.   The researcher has worked to develop her writing skills by preparing manuscripts for presentation at various conferences. In addition, the researcher has published a study guide to accompany an educational psychology college textbook.

In addition to dealing with certain criteria for conducting qualitative research there is a need to bring to the surface any personal, or theoretical assumptions, beliefs, and interests that may help the reader better understand this study.

1.   The researcher views perceptions as mediators of student learning.

2.   The researcher believes that students and teachers are actively involved in perceiving each other in class (Downey, 1977).

3.   The researcher believes that how children interpret what their teacher thinks about them in class may affect not only how they perceive themselves, but also how about their interactions with the teacher, and possibly their overall learning and success in school.

4.   The researcher also believes that teaching and learning can be better understood and improved by knowing its effects upon the students.

5.   The researcher views classroom interactions between students and teachers as dynamic, structured, and meaningful (Shantz, 1983).

6.   The researcher views classrooms as complex, dynamic, and multi-dimensional environments in which teachers and students influence one another's perceptions and behaviors (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993).

7.   The researcher expected that students' perceptions may not be congruent with their interpretations of the teacher's perceptions about them (Hargreaves, 1975).

8.   The researcher expected that there may be differences in the kinds of knowledge students possess about what their teacher thinks of them in class (Cochran-Smith, 1984).

Issues of Validity and Reliability

According to Erickson (1986), the primary validity criterion of qualitative research is "*the immediate and local meanings of actions*, as defined from the actors' points of view" (p. 119). Erickson (1986) suggests that the story itself should persuade the reader that things were in the setting in the way the author claimed them to

be and the richness of detail in the story along with the interpretation of the particulars in the story, make a valid account that is not only a description but is an analysis. In addition, the story must be clear, appropriate, and useful to potential audiences (Erickson, 1986).

Lincoln & Guba (1990) proposed the following standards for validity in educational research: (a) the fit between research questions, data collection procedures, and analysis techniques; (b) the effective application of specific data collection and analysis techniques (i.e., how interviews should be conducted or how data should be reduced); (c) alertness to and coherence of prior knowledge about the topic; (d) research studies should be conducted in an ethical manner and should explicitly address, in language that is accessible to the interested audiences, the importance of the research and its implications; (e) clarity and coherence, as well as being able to engage knowledge from outside the particular perspective one is working and being able to apply general principles for evaluating arguments.

Some of the steps taken to ensure the validity of the study's findings have already been discussed: (a) the long period of data collection enabled the researcher to become familiar with the participants and the setting in which

their perceptions were constructed; (b) the triangulation of methods of data collection which provided opportunities to compare data and better understand the participants' perspectives; (c) the techniques for analyzing data which enabled the researcher to search for patterns in students' responses; and (d) the ethical and systematic manner in which the study was conducted.

Specific considerations were made to optimize the validity of children's answers (Assor & Connell, 1992): (a) the researcher asked children questions in a way that helped them understand what she was looking for; (b) the researcher convinced the children that any answer they gave was acceptable as long as they were telling us what they really believed; (c) the researcher explained to the children why she was asking them to become her informants and what she was going to do with their answers; (d) the researcher told children who would be seeing or hearing their answers; (e) the researcher told the children that she might be asking a lot of similar questions and why (for internal consistency).

Reliability refers to the repeatability of the study by another researcher. The comprehensive and elaborate description and documentation of the research process is sufficient for independent researchers to replicate the same procedures in comparable settings (Sherman & Webb,

1990). The use of audio instruments, the stressing of low-inference descriptions, and the confirmation of findings by informants were some additional measures taken to insure internal reliability (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982).

CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the nature of
children's interpersonal perceptions in two fourth-grade
classrooms. As previously discussed, the researcher
adopted a symbolic interaction perspective wherein it was
assumed that people construct meanings about self and
others through their interactions in social contexts.
Students' written and oral reports and observations of
classroom interactions were collected over a period of five
months. More specifically, the researcher analyzed the
content of the students' self-perceptions and
interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them
in class, the information students used to form their
interpretations, and the students' classroom interactions
with the teacher.

The collected data from both classes were analyzed to
produce broad and focused domains. Taxonomies were
constructed by integrating data from different domains. In
this chapter, as children's self-perceptions and
interpretations are described, data from the taxonomies

and interviews will be provided to support and illustrate the findings.

The analysis of the data showed the following:

1. There were differences in the content of students' (a) self-perceptions and (b) in the interpretations of their teacher's perceptions, across the two classes.

2. Students in both classes gave more information about themselves than about what their teacher thought of them in class.

3. Students in Class B gave more information about themselves and what their teacher thought of them than students in Class A.

4. There were similarities in the types of information students from the two fourth-grade classes used to form their interpretations.

5. Students' interpersonal perceptions are products of student-teacher interactions.

In this chapter, the researcher will examine in detail the findings according to each research question.

Students' Self-Perceptions

Table 4-1

Content Analysis: I Think I Am. . .

CATEGORY	CLASS A	CLASS B
Ability	137	193
Personal information	86	24
Personality characteristics	51	69
Likes	41	89
Favorite things	33	20
Friends	16	14
Dislikes	12	09
Relationships with others	10	28
Behavior	07	06
Effort	00	06
TOTAL	393	450

Table 4-1 shows the content analysis results of students' written responses about their self-perceptions by category and frequency count of written statements. For a detailed analysis of students' self-perceptions, see Appendix D (Tables D-1 and D-2).

Table 4-1 shows that students gave a lot of written information about themselves (N=843 statements). The content of their self-perceptions consisted of statements about their abilities (i.e., in different subjects, sports,

and in general); their physical (i.e., age, name, physical appearance) and personality characteristics; family information (i.e., siblings, parents); things they liked, disliked, and loved; who their friends were; how they related to others; and how they behaved in class. The content of students' self-perceptions was similar in both classes, with the exception of effort, which was reported only by students in class B.

Table 4-1 shows that the majority of students' self-perceptions were about abilities (N=330 statements); things they liked (N=130 statements) about school, hobbies, and sports; personality characteristics (N=113 statements); personal information (N=110 statements). The way students perceived themselves was stable over time (see Appendix D, Tables D-1 and D-2).

When children were asked to report about themselves, they gave a lot of information about subjects and sports they were good at, in contrast to things they were not good at. Students' self-perceptions reflected a strong emphasis on their various abilities in school. For example, students perceived themselves as "I think I am good in math" (AM6.3); "I think I am good in writing" (AM12.1); "I think I am a pretty good soccer player" (BF23.1); "I think I am good in basketball" (BM6.1); "I think I am athletic" (BF14.1). The domain and taxonomic analysis (see Appendix D, Tables D-1 and D-2) showed that although students in

both classes reported about how good they were in various subjects, their written statements reflected a heavy emphasis on mathematics (29% of *subject-related* statements), reading (12% of *subject-related* statements), and writing (12% of *subject-related* statement).

In sports, students' self-perceptions were centered around soccer (31% of sports-related statements), basketball (14% of sports-related statements), and football (12% of *sports-related* statements). Students also perceived themselves in general ways; for example, "I am smart," "I am good in school," or "I am intelligent" (see Appendix D, Tables D-1 and D-2).

Students' in both classes offered personal information about their siblings, family, own age, and name (33% of *personal information* statements), their physical appearance (27% of *personal information* statements), and extra curricular activities they were involved in (10% of *personal information* statements).

A similarity across both classes in the content of students' self-perceptions was discovered but there was a difference between the two classes in the frequency of different categories (see Table 4-1). Overall, children in class B gave more information about themselves (N=450 statements) than children in class A (N=393 statements). More specifically, children in class B reported more about things they liked (N=89 statements) than children in class

A (N=41 statements). Students' reported self-perceptions
in class A involved more statements about demographic
information, physical appearance, and extra curricular
activities (N=86 statements) than students' self-
perceptions in class B (N=24 statements).

In sum, the analysis of students' reported self-
perceptions reveals that children in both classes gave a
lot of information about themselves. The analysis also
showed that there were similarities in the content of
students' self-perceptions across the two classes but
differences existed in the frequency of statements given by
students in the two classes.

Students' Interpretations of Teacher's Perceptions

Table 4-2

Content Analysis: I Think My Teacher Thinks I Am. . .

CATEGORY	CLASS A	CLASS B
Ability	74	102
Personality characteristics	69	57
Relationships with others	15	33
Don't Know	14	01
Effort	13	08
Behavior	11	49
Teacher likes/dislikes me	11	02
Other	05	01
Favorite things	02	05
Personal information	01	01
TOTAL	215	259

Table 4-2 shows the content analysis results of students' written responses about their interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them by category and frequency count of written statements. For a more detailed analysis of students' self-perceptions, see Appendix D (Tables D-3 and D-4).

Children in both classes formed various interpretations about what their teacher thought of them in class. Table 4-2 shows that, overall students' interpretations in the two classes varied not so much in content but in frequency of statements. Children did not report as much about what their teacher thought of them (N=474 statements) as they did about themselves (N=843 statements).

Children's interpretations consisted of statements about what they thought their teacher thought of their abilities (i.e., in various subjects, sports, and in general), personality characteristics, relationships with others in class, classroom behavior, effort, whether they thought the teacher liked them or disliked them, and some information about their favorite things.

Some children reported a lack of knowledge about their teacher's perceptions about them in an explicit way: "I don't know" (.03% of total statements). Fourteen of 15 statements of this kind were made by children in class A.

In addition, the children made interpretations about their teacher liking them or disliking them in class (.02% of total statements).

Although the children gave a lot of personal information when they reported their self-perceptions, there were only two instances where children wrote about what their teacher thought of them in terms of personal information. One student's statement referred to what the teacher thought of the child's physical appearance (i.e., "Ms. Naylor thinks I am good looking") and a second child's statement was about the him watching too much television (i.e., "Mrs. Cleary thinks I watch too many movies.").

The content of children's interpretations was remarkably similar in both classes, but differences in the frequency of statements were discovered. The majority of students' interpretations were about what their teacher thought of their abilities (N=176), their personality characteristics (N=126), their classroom behavior (N=60), and how they related with others in class (N=48). For example, students thought their teacher thought of them as "good at math" (AM9.1), "good at multiplication" (AF11.3), "sort of a smart person in math" (BM9.1), "good at soccer" (BF23.2), "friendly and caring to others" (BF21.1), or "a good listener" (BF13.1).

Students' interpretations reflected an absence of information on about they thought their teacher knew about

their favorite things. There were only six occurrences in
which children reported that their teacher knew what some
of their favorite things were. Also striking was the total
absence, even in these six cases, of what students thought
their teacher knew *about* the things they liked to do inside
or outside the school setting.

When children were asked to interpret what their
teacher thought of them in class, their statements focused
on their abilities in various subjects and sports (37% of
total statements), followed by students' personality
characteristics (27% of total statements), and classroom
behavior (13% of total statements). The domain analysis
(see Appendix D, Tables D-3 and D-4) showed that children's
interpretations were stable over time, and contained many
statements about their mathematics (43% of *subject-related*
statements) and writing abilities (13% of subject-related
statements).

Students' in class B made more statements about what
Mrs. Cleary thought of their abilities in mathematics
(27% of *subject-related* statements) than students' in class
A. In class B, students' reported that their teacher
thought they were "not good" in math (10% of *subject-
related* statements), spelling (10% of subject-related
statements), handwriting (4% of *subject-related*
statements), Florida history (2% of *subject-related*
statements), and literature groups (2% of *subject-related*

statements). Also, in class B, students gave more specific statements about what their teacher thought of their personality characteristics (n=30) than students in class A (n=25).

In sports, children's interpretations were centered around soccer (19% of *sports-related* statements) and being "a good athlete" (17% of *sports-related* statements). Relationships with others in class was another interesting domain, as children reported about who their teacher, thought were friends with other students (48% *relationships with others* statements), how they treated others (44% of *relationships with others* statements), and how they worked with others in class (8% of *relationships with others* statements). What the teacher thought about the way students treat each other in class was more evident in class B (29% of *relationships with others* statements) than in class A (15% of *relationships with others* statements).

Classroom behavior was another area which was particularly emphasized by children in class B. Children reported what they thought their teacher thought of them in terms of "talking too much," "talking in line," following directions, and paying attention (see Appendix D, Tables D-3 and D-4). More children in class A (n=14 statements) reported that they did not know what their teacher thought of them than in class B (n=1 statement).

Finally, children interpreted what their teacher thought of them in terms of effort (4% of total statements). Children thought their teacher thought they were trying their best (n=12 statements) and working hard (n=5 statements; see Appendix D, Tables D-3 and D-4).

Table 4-3 (see p. 107) shows a cross-comparison of the content analysis results for students' self-perceptions and interpretations of their teacher's perceptions across the two classes.

When the researcher asked the students whether they thought children could know what their teacher thought of them, they answered "yes" (n=11 statements), "yeah" (n=7 statements), "children have a good idea" (n=1 statement), and "most of them know" (n=1 statement). Only one student said:

> I don't know; I don't think that kids would tell you everything they know, though. Maybe the kindergartners would tell you everything. (AF12)

Students also suggested that some children could know more than others. They thought that the students who "spend more time with her" or "talked more to her," "wrote more to her," "helped her," or "watch if she makes a face or anything," had a better understanding of what their teacher thought of them; they had more information. One

Table 4-3

Content Analysis Comparison Across Two Classes: Students' Self-Perceptions And Interpretations Of Their Teacher's Perceptions.

CATEGORIES	CLASS A		CLASS B	
	I THINK I AM	I THINK TEACHER THINKS I AM	I THINK I AM	I THINK TEACHER THINKS I AM
Ability	137	74	193	102
Personal information	86	01	24	01
Personality characteristics	51	69	62	57
Likes	41		89	
Favorite things	33	02	20	05
Friends	16		14	
Dislikes	12		09	
Relationships with others	10	15	28	33
Behavior	07	11	06	49
Effort		13	06	08
Teacher likes me/dislikes me		11		02
Don't know		14		01
Other		05		01
TOTAL	393	215	450	259

student thought that "the kids in writer's workshop can know more because they are with her longer" (BM24). The following examples from interview excerpts with students highlight this point:

> Yeah, some people know more because they talk more to the teacher. (BM25)

> Well. . . the people who write to her like in their journals, . . . and not many people write to her. (BM10)

> Like the people who really like the teacher and talk to her more, and they watch if she makes a face or anything. (BF29)

Two students reported that children "who don't work at their effort and don't care about their grades" (BF15), or "those who don't listen to what the teacher tells them may not know" (AF23). According to the interviewed students, the children who did not care about their grades and did not try hard, or those who did not care about their classroom behavior, would not know as much about what their teacher thought about them as those who cared.

Because the researcher wished to get a deeper understanding of students' interpretations, she asked children to report--in written and oral form--what they would like to know about what their teacher thought of them in class (see Table 4-4). All students wrote their free

responses and 21 were interviewed. All children wrote and spoke extensively on this subject.

Table 4-4

Content Analysis: I Would Like To Know What My Teacher Thinks Of Me When I. . . .

CATEGORY	CLASS A	CLASS B
Subject-related information	87	42
Behavior	63	98
Ability	34	09
General	27	03
Responsibilities	19	37
Relationships with others	18	21
Personality characteristics	04	06
Effort	00	04
TOTAL	252	221

Table 4-4 shows the content analysis results of students' written responses, about what they would like to know their teacher thought of them in class, by category and frequency count. For a detailed analysis of these statements, see Appendix D (Tables D-5 and D-6).

The analysis of students' statements indicated that there was consistency in *what* the students wanted to know about their teachers' perceptions of them but differences in how much information they lacked in certain areas. The

top three types of information students' wanted were: (a)
what their teacher thought of their behavior (34% of total
statements); (b) what their teacher thought about their
performance and participation in various subjects (27% of
total statements), and (c) what their teacher thought of
the them taking care of or neglecting their
responsibilities (12% of total statements).

Students' comments indicated that they wanted more
information particularly in what the teacher thought about
their performance in mathematics (29% of *subject-related*
statements), followed by other subjects such as writing,
reading, and spelling (see Appendix D, Tables D-5 and D-6).

The analysis showed that students sought feedback on
what the teacher thought about them when they did things
right or wrong, when they participated in class or did not
participate in class, when they behaved or did not behave,
and especially when they turned in or forgot to turn in
their work (see Appendix D, Tables D-5 and D-6). For
example, students wanted to know what their teacher thought
of them when they "come to school on time," "don't do my
work," "forget to put my name on it," or "don't turn in
things on time" (see Appendix D, Tables D-5 and D-6).

Children from class B were especially interested in
what their teacher thought of their behavior. For example:

I would like to know what she thinks about how I
behave. (BM10.1)

When I do something she preferred me not to do. (BF5.1)

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I talk in line and when I am in trouble. (BM2.1)

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I don't listen. (BF16.2)

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I talk when I shouldn't be talking. (BF23.2)

Children from class A were very interested in what their teacher thought of their performance, ability, and participation in various subjects. For example:

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I do my subjects like math and science. I'd like to know what she thinks about my writing, if my stories are good. (AF4.1)

I would like to know. . . in my math, does she think I brag? (AF14.1)

I would like to know what she thinks of me when it's math time and I'm trying my best but a lot of them are wrong. (AF16.1)

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I am doing well in art. (AF18.2)

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I don't write in cursive. (AM20.2)

Students in both classes were interested in what the teacher thought of them when they "talked in line" and when they "walked back from art, music, science, and the cafeteria." Talking in line was a problem most students had and it was discussed a lot by the teacher in the classroom. For example:

I would like to know what she thinks of me when I'm
bad and when I'm good, and when I talk in line. I
think I should know because if I don't I won't be
able to improve. I would like to know what she thinks
when I am talking in line because I talk in line a
lot. It's because lots of people talk to me and I
can't just say, I can't just tap them on the shoulder
and say "be quiet." It's just when they ask me
questions that I have to answer them. (AF10.1)

In sum, the analysis of students' reported
interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them
reveals that students reported less information about what
the teacher thought of them than about themselves. The
analysis also showed that there were similarities in the
content of students' interpretations across the two
classes, but differences existed in the frequency of
statements given by students in class A and B.

Information Students Used to Construct Interpretations

Data from three interviews with eight children from
class A and 13 children from class B showed that all
children used information from their classroom interactions
with the teacher to construct interpretations about how she
perceived them in class.

When children were asked to explain how they knew the
different things they wrote about what their teacher

Table 4-5

Sources Of Information Children Used To Construct Interpretations

SOURCE OF INFORMATION	TYPE OF INFORMATION (Students' Actual Statements)	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
Teacher	Sometimes she tells me	(n=21)
Teacher	Writes "good job" on my work	(n=14)
Teacher	Doesn't tell me	(n=13)
Student	Don't know	(n=07)
Teacher	Writes in our journal	(n=06)
Teacher	She shows it	(n=05)
Teacher	Sometimes she tells me "good job"	(n=04)
Teacher	The way she acts	(n=04)
Teacher	Writes me a putt-up	(n=04)
Teacher	Writes me notes on my paper about my work	(n=04)
Teacher	She encourages me	(n=03)
Teacher	She rewards me with stars	(n=03)
Teacher	She sometimes makes me compliments	(n=01)
Teacher	She writes me a note	(n=03)
Teacher	From my report card	(n=02)
Teacher	Gives you feedback about your work	(n=03)
Teacher	She doesn't call on me	(n=02)
Teacher	She rewards me with candy	(n=02)
Teacher	She tells me I am smart	(n=02)
Teacher	She tells my parents	(n=02)
Teacher	She says "good"	(n=02)
Teacher	Sometimes she says "thank you"	(n=02)
Student	I know	(n=01)
Student	It's just a feeling	(n=01)
Student	I get good grades	(n=01)
Teacher	Her attitude	(n=01)
Teacher	Let me pass out papers	(n=01)

Teacher	She calls my name when I'm good	(n=01)
Teacher	She came to watch some of my baseball games	(n=01)
Teacher	She doesn't look bored when I read my report	(n=01)
Teacher	She gives me hints	(n=01)
Teacher	She gives me notes saying "you are very bright", and "you are smart"	(n=01)
Teacher	She goes thumbs up to me	(n=01)
Teacher	She puts me in advanced groups	(n=01)
Teacher	She has a mean voice when I'm bad	(n=01)
Teacher	She has a gentle voice when I'm good	(n=01)
Teacher	She reads my work as an example	(n=01)
Teacher	She rewards me with free homework passes	(n=01)
Teacher	She says "I like this"	(n=01)
Teacher	She says "you've improved a lot"	(n=01)
Teacher	She says "you shouldn't do this"	(n=01)
Teacher	She talks to me but doesn't tell me what she thinks about me	(n=01)
Teacher	She smiles	(n=01)
Teacher	She talks in a stern voice when she has to move me	(n=01)
Teacher	She talks more advanced to me	(n=01)
Teacher	She tells me I am kind	(n=01)
Teacher	Sometimes she acts like she hates me	(n=01)
Teacher	Sometimes she says "you are a good writer"	(n=01)
Teacher	Sometimes she says "you have a nice handwriting"	(n=01)
Teacher	The way she looks at me	(n=01)
Teacher	Writes a note to your parents	(n=01)
Teacher	Writes "nice summary"	(n=01)
Teacher	Writes on your report card	(n=01)
Teacher	Writes "you are smart" on my papers	(n=01)
Teacher	You can just tell	(n=01)
TOTAL		**(N=145)**

thought of them in class, they talked about their experiences and classroom interactions with their teacher.

Table 4-5 shows the analysis of students' written statements about the kinds of information they used to construct their interpretations of what the teacher thought of them in class. The table shows the sources of information (i.e., something the *teacher* did or said and the *student* himself/herself), the students' actual written statements, and a frequency count of their statements.

This analysis revealed the influence the teacher's verbal and written comments had on the children's interpretations. The information the students used to construct their interpretations was: (a) something the teacher *said* to the child about their work, abilities, personality, effort, or behavior; (b) something the teacher *wrote* on the child's work, notes, or report card; (c) something the teacher *did* in the classroom; (d) the teacher's *non-verbal* behavior toward the student in class, and (e) something the student *felt* about the teacher's perceptions of her/him in class. In addition, some children said they "didn't know" exactly what their teacher thought of them because the teacher "didn't tell them."

The children spoke freely about the information they had about their teacher's perceptions of them, how they used that information, and what kind of information they did not have. Students gave many examples to support their

statements. Their reasoning reflected how these children
processed and analyzed their everyday classroom
interactions with their teacher.

Table 4-6 shows the verbal information from their
teacher the students used to construct their
interpretations. The table shows the exact student
statements and a frequency count of the statements.

Table 4-6

Verbal Information Students Used To Construct
Interpretations

TYPE OF STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
• [something] teacher said to student	(n=23)
• [something] teacher said to student about work	(n=11)
• the compliments teacher paid to student	(n=04)
• the encouragement teacher gives to student	(n=04)
• [something] teacher said to student about ability	(n=02)
• [something] teacher said to student about behavior	(n=02)
• [something] teacher said to student about effort	(n=01)
• [something] teacher said to student about personality	(n=01)
• [something] teacher said to student's parents	(n=01)
TOTAL	(n=49)

Of all the things the children said about what their teacher did in the classroom, her verbal statements (n=49 statements) were most often reported by the students as the kind of information they used to construct their interpretations of what she thought of them in class.

Although interpretations of others' perceptions is a complex task, especially for children, the children who participated in this study were able to report both in written and oral form what they thought their teacher thought of them. What the teacher said to the children privately or publicly seemed to be the most often reported information they used to construct and validate their interpretations. The children viewed the teachers' verbal statements as expressions of her perceptions about them in class. The following examples taken from interview excerpts highlight the importance most students placed on their teacher's verbal statements:

Sometimes she tells me like "good job." (BM25.2)

Sometimes she makes compliments about my work, and you can just tell. (BF23.2)

Because she'll compliment me a lot and she'll say "you have a very high score". . . . She compliments me and gives me feedback. She says "you've improved a lot" and "I like this." (BF15.2)

She says "You shouldn't do this." if she doesn't like something and she says "That's a good job," and stuff like that. (BM10.1)

She sometimes talks to me. (BM10.2)

She sometimes talks to me and stuff like that. (BM10.3)

Sometimes she tells me I do good work. (AF12.1)

She says I'm smart and stuff. . . . She tells me not to talk in line. (AF12.2)

Another interesting finding was that a couple of students questioned whether their teacher's verbal statements really expressed what they thought about them. They viewed the teachers' comments as "tools of the trade," as something teachers do anyway, and decided not to interpret them any further. That is, students' responses revealed the analytic work students did to bring distinctions between what's said or heard, and how it can be interpreted. Thus, students noted limits of looking at the teacher's verbal statements.

For example, some students said:

She talks to me, but that doesn't tell me what she thinks of me. (AM5.3)

Sometimes she tells me. . . . I don't know if sometimes she tries to impress me or something or if she wants me to like school and stuff, I don't know. (AF12.2)

She says "good job," but that's what teachers do. I mean, when someone does a good job that's not about them; that's just about their work. (AF12.3)

Table 4-7

Written Information Students Used To Construct
Interpretations

TYPE OF STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
• [teacher] writes "good" on my work	(n=14)
• [teacher] writes in my journal	(n=06)
• [teacher] writes me notes on my paper about my work	(n=04)
• [teacher] writes me a note	(n=03)
• [teacher] gives me note saying "you're smart"	(n=01)
• [teacher] writes a note to your parents	(n=01)
• [teacher] writes "nice summary"	(n=01)
• [teacher] writes on the report card	(n=01)
• [teacher] writes "you are smart" on my papers	(n=01)
TOTAL	(n=34)

Table 4-7 shows the written information from their
teacher the students used to construct their
interpretations. The table shows the exact student
statements and a frequency count of the statements.

The second type of information students selected from
their classroom interactions with the teacher was the
teacher's written statements or feedback (n=34). The
comments the teacher wrote on their work about their work
or about the students were viewed by the children as

significant evidence of the teacher's perceptions about the them.

Students valued the notes or "put-ups" (i.e., a communication system developed by both teachers to encourage children to write compliments about each other in class.) they received from the teacher.

These were viewed by the children as more significant because they were private, personalized messages the teacher wrote and placed in their "put-up" folder periodically. Even written comments given to parents or written on the students' report cards were viewed as evidence of the teacher's actual perceptions of the students. Finally, some children especially valued what the teacher wrote in their response journal. It should be noted that response journals were used only at the beginning of the school year by Mrs. Cleary (Class B). The journals were later discontinued because of lack of classroom time.

The following are some examples taken from interview excerpts that highlight the importance students' placed on the teachers' written statements.

Sometimes she writes me a note or a put-up. Uh, sometimes she writes "good job" in my work. (BM25.1)

She like, writes on my work "good job," "nice summary," and stuff like that. (BF22.1)

I've been getting notes that kept saying "you are very bright and you are very smart." (AM1.1)

Like when she's writing down on my papers, after
they're turned in, she'll write "good," or "I think
you did your best at this." (BM11.3)

She writes in my challenge and in my journal writing.
(BM6.1)

Sometimes she writes "great, great job," and stuff
like that. (BF16.1)

She'll write stuff like "nice work," but you could
have done better in this place or that place. (BF8.2)

She puts "good work" and stuff like that in my
papers. She writes comments like "needs paragraph
lines". She writes in my response journal and she
asks me what books I've read, what I did in my
vacation, and stuff. (BM24.2)

She'll write letters to us, in our journals, and
she'll ask us a couple of things. (BF8.2)

More students questioned whether the teachers' written

feedback on their work really expressed the teacher's

actual perceptions of the students. For example:

Sometimes she writes "good work" and stuff on my
papers, but she doesn't really say what she thinks
really. Like a lot of times they write "good work"
and something, but it doesn't really mean how they
feel about it. And a lot of times they'll say "fix
this" and write why you need to fix it. I don't
really think that tells anything about how they feel
about it. (AF23.1)

She writes notes in my work, but they are not really
about how she feels about me. They are about what to
do, what to fix or something. (AF23.2)

She writes "good job" and stuff on papers, but that
doesn't tell you what she thinks of you. (AF23.3)

Like she writes "nice work" and "you need to work
on it," but that doesn't mean that's what she thinks
of me. (AF12.1)

Again, some students questioned the significance of
the teachers' general written statements. They viewed the
teachers' written feedback as part of the teachers' job and
separated her comments about their own work from what she
actually thought of them in class. In other words, some
children viewed written statements such as "good job" as
statements that had nothing to do with what the teacher
thought of the students, but they valued compliments or
messages written in the "put-ups" or the students' journal.

Table 4-8

Non-Verbal Information Students Used To Construct
Interpretations

TYPE OF STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
• she [teacher] shows it	(n=05)
• the way she [teacher] acts	(n=04)
• her [teacher's] attitude	(n=01)
• she [teacher] acts like she hates me	(n=01)
• she [teacher] doesn't look bored when I read my report	(n=01)
• she [teacher] goes thumbs up to me	(n=01)
• she [teacher] smiles	(n=01)
• the way she [teacher] looks at me	(n=01)
TOTAL	(n=15)

Table 4-8 shows the non-verbal information from their teacher the students used to construct their interpretations. The table shows the exact student statements and a frequency count of the statements.

The third type of information students used to construct their interpretations was the teachers' non-verbal behavior (n=15). This was a particularly interesting finding, for it showed that some children noticed not only what the teacher said or wrote, but *how* she said something toward or about them in class. Thus, for these children, meaning is given not just in the words, but in the co-verbal and non-verbal accompaniments of gesture, pace, volume, pitch, and intonation.

Many children talked about the teacher's actions and reported that they knew what their teacher thought about them because of the *way she acted* toward them. For example:

> She sometimes shows it. Because whenever I write stories, whenever I do a report or something. She asks "Who would like to share their stories?" uh, she'll pick me second, first, or third, and you can tell when the teacher is bored at someone's story because they'll be reading it and. She'll be scratching her foot and looking everywhere, tying her shoe lace, and thinking; stuff like that and she gets bored from it. (BF15.1)

> Because of the way she acts. She acts differently cause like other people, they are doing things in writing that I already know, so, she talks more advanced to me. Well, uh, say the other person is working on just learning how to do similes, she'll just come over and talk to me about what similes I've already put in my story. (BF15.

Sometimes she acts like she hates me. For
instance, calling on me last and always when I'm quiet
leaving me on my desk instead of calling me. So,
sometimes I think she absolutely hates me and
sometimes I think she likes me. It's just the way her
attitude certain points of time, and what she does to
me and things like that. She doesn't tell me; she
sort of gives me hints at certain points, like she
doesn't call on me when she's mad at me, and things
like that. (AF10.1)

Well, I'm talking sometimes she has a mean voice,
sometimes because she has a short temper and
sometimes she talks in a mean voice when I'm talking
or something and when I'm being good she has a nice,
gentle voice. Her actions, maybe sometimes she might
stick her hand out and point somewhere meanly and
she does it meanly and sometimes she does it nicely.
(AF10.2)

Uh, actually I think she shows it. Like yesterday,
uh, she, she said "would you like to pass [homework]
out?" and I was willing to take it and she smiled. She
doesn't tell you what she thinks, but I can tell by
the things she does. Like if I misspelled something
she'll say it doesn't matter she encourages me.
(BM11.1)

Actually, she shows by encouraging me. She was
helping me improve. (BM11.2)

I can tell by the way she acts or looks at me and
stuff. She doesn't really tell me. (AF23.1)

She kind of talks in a stern voice when she has to
move me. (AF23.2)

By her actions and by the way she acts. (BF8.1)

Well, from the way she acts to me. (AF21.3)

Some students paid particular attention to how their
teacher talked to them when she was angry or when the
students were not behaving well (Class A), how she
encouraged them rather than criticized them (Class B), and
how the teacher even looked at them at different times.

Some children seemed to have paid more attention to the teacher's non-verbal behaviors than her oral or written feedback about them or about their work.

Table 4-9

Information From Teacher's Practices Students Used To Construct Interpretations

TYPE OF STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
• she [teacher] rewards me with stars	(n=03)
• she [teacher] rewards me with candy	(n=02)
• she [teacher] comes to some of my baseball games	(n=01)
• she [teacher] doesn't call on me	(n=01)
• she [teacher] lets me pass out papers	(n=01)
• she [teacher] puts me in advance groups	(n=01)
• she [teacher] reads my work as an example	(n=01)
• she [teacher] rewards me with free homework passes	(n=01)
TOTAL	(n=11)

Table 4-9 shows information from things the teacher did (i.e., *practices*) in the classroom that students used to construct their interpretations. The table shows the exact student statements and a frequency count of the statements.

The fourth type of information students used to construct their interpretations of what their teacher thought about them was the teacher's practices (n=11). Some children talked about the rewards and privileges or responsibilities they were given by the teacher for behaving well, and about special experiences they've had with the teacher.

The following examples taken from interview excerpts illustrate this point:

If you don't talk in line when we are walking or something, you don't get any minutes off recess and she might give you a prize, like a pencil or something.   (BF23.1)

We have a star for when we pass addition, subtraction, division, and mixed facts.   (BM6.2)

When I am helping others, she'll give me a treat and call my name.   (BF29.1)

She puts me in groups, I don't have to go to tutor groups, because in enrichment we have a higher level on our math.   (BF15.1)

She talks more advanced to me when she talks to me.   (BF15.2)

She's come to watch some of my baseball games.   (BM10.2)

She gives us free homework passes and gold stars on your paper.   (AF10.3)

She rewards me with something like candy or a jolly rancher.   (AF10.2)

She reads my story for examples to class but she doesn't like come and talk to people personally about what she thinks about them.   (BF15.2)

Some children viewed their teacher's actions toward them and their work, and whether the teacher asked them "to pass out the homework papers" to the rest of the class, as "proof" for their interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about their work or behavior. None of the children questioned the teachers' actions. Instead, they viewed her giving them a reward like a star with their name on it for having passed the division facts, as evidence of her thinking they were good in mathematics. Also, when a child received a "jolly rancher" (i.e., a lollipop) or a pencil for walking quietly in line, that meant (to that child) that the teacher thought he/she had good behavior.

Table 4-10

Other Information Students Used To Construct Interpretations

TYPE OF STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
• [information] from my report card	(n=01)
• I get good grades	(n=01)
• I know	(n=01)
• It's just a feeling	(n=01)
• You can just tell	(n=01)
TOTAL	(n=05)

The last type of information reported by some of the students was their personal feelings about what the teacher

thought of them (n=5; see Table 4-10). A few students had no actual evidence for their interpretations. Instead, they had "just a feeling," a "you can just tell," or "I know" kind of information. They seemed to base their interpretations of what they thought their teacher thought of them on their personal instincts. A couple of children said that they could tell what their teacher thought of them because "of my report card" or "from my good grades."

Finally, there where seven instances were children said "I don't know" and 13 instances where they said "She doesn't tell me." These children were able to write about what they thought their teacher thought of them in class but gave no evidence for their judgment.

When the researcher asked the students to share with her what they would like their teacher to do so they can know better what she thought of them, the majority of them wanted the teacher to tell them what she thought, and a couple specified that they wanted her to tell them privately.

Table 4-11

What Students Wanted The Teacher To Do

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF STATEMENT
• tell me	(n=07)
• write to me	(n=04)
• I don't really care	(n=02)
• nothing	(n=02)
• talk to me more	(n=02)
• give me signs	(n=02)
• have more fun activities	(n=01)
• smile more at me	(n=01)
TOTAL	(N=21)

Table 4-11 shows what students wanted the teacher to do so they could have a better understanding of what she thought of them. The table shows the exact student statements and a frequency count of the statements.

Many students wanted the teacher to write to them, especially in their journals, and one asked for the teacher to write notes on the report card. The following are some excerpts from interviews with the students:

> I would like her to give signs, like if I was bad, like looking at me in a mean way or something like that. (AF10.3)

> Just talk to me, just like give me hints and stuff, just talk to me. (BM10.3)

> Like when we have journals where we write back, I like it when she writes to me. . . . May be just write some more in the journals. (BM10.2)

Uh, maybe tell me what she thinks of me, privately.
(AF23.2)

Tell me what she thinks of me. I would like her to
explain to me when I am in trouble why I am in
trouble. (AF10.2)

I would like her to write to me, to write me a
personal letter and tell me if I am doing good or
bad. (AM25.2)

I would probably like her to come up and tell me
"Cindy, I wish you wouldn't have done that; that
was kind of rude or that was wrong." (BF8.2)

I would like her to tell me more what she thinks of
of me and write to me. I would like her to have more
class meetings and talk to me more. (BF29.2)

All students expressed that they wanted their teacher

to give them more specific feedback about how they are

doing in class, how they relate with other students, how

they behave, and what exactly she would like them to do.

In addition, their responses showed that they were really

looking for a more personalized, one-on-one oral or written

type of feedback from the teacher. A couple of students

even asked for specific non-verbal clues and explanations

about punishments they received.

Finally, when students were asked about the importance

of their teacher's perceptions about them, all, except four

who said "it didn't matter," believed it to be important to

them. The two students for whom the teacher's perceptions

did not matter said that they instead cared about what

their friends thought of them. The children who assigned

importance to the teachers' perceptions of them explained

that:

> It matters because if she like wonders a certain
> thing about me, she might chatter to other teachers
> and other teachers will have the same impression may
> be she has. (BF15.1)
>
> She is my teacher and I have to get along with her for
> the rest of the year. (BF23.1)
>
> Like when I am doing math. I don't really care when I
> am doing Art because it's my favorite subject.
> (AF10.1)
>
> She is my teacher. (AF4.2)
>
> Because what my teacher thinks of me is going to help
> me later in life. (BM11.1)
>
> It matters if I am getting in big trouble. (AF23.1)
>
> Because if she said bad things about me it would make
> feel bad. (BM6.1)
>
> Yes, because I want to know desperate. (BF17.1)
>
> I think it's important, because I don't want to be
> like a bad student and have her think I am a bad
> student. (BF8.1)
>
> Because it affects my grades and when I grow up I want
> to be a doctor. (AF21.1)

In sum, the analysis of students' written and oral

statements showed that students used various kinds of

information to construct their interpretations of what

their teacher thought of them in class. Verbal, written,

and non-verbal information given by the teacher, as well as

rewards or privileges the students received, formed the

foundation for their interpretations. Children analyzed

the teacher's feedback and asked for personalized, private feedback. Students also reported that they would like to know more about what their teacher thinks of them in class. They indicated that their teacher's perceptions of them in class affects their present and future school success and even their future in general.

Classroom Interactions and Students' Interpretations

To answer this question the researcher analyzed verbatim transcripts and field observations and searched for evidence (i.e., messages, events, patterns) about the role of classroom interactions in the construction of students' interpretations.

According to the symbolic interaction perspective (Blumer, 1969), individuals assign meanings to the things of their world *through* their interactions with others in social situations. In this study, the way the children viewed themselves and, especially, what they thought their teacher thought of them in class were viewed as products of student-teacher interactions.

The analysis of the verbatim transcripts and classroom observations showed that the emphasis the teacher placed upon certain things, such as appropriate classroom behavior, performance, student responsibilities, and

relationships with others in class, influenced the way students' interpreted their teacher's perceptions about them. The classroom environment or culture created by the teacher became the source of information for the students' interpretations. Data from the students' writing and interviews with them support this finding (see Research Questions 1-3, pp. 98-132).

The researcher selected four examples, two for each class, from verbatim transcripts to describe and discuss in this section (see Appendix H for the entire transcripts). The teacher's discourse is highlighted by boldface to show the contrast in the presentation.

Excerpt one is taken from an afternoon in class A (see Appendix G, Transcript #23). The children are back from recess and the teacher is sitting on her stool, in the front of the room, waiting for them to get ready for spelling.

Excerpt 1

Line	Speaker	Discourse
0032	Teacher	**Also, let me ask you a question. Do**
0033		**you think I was having fun this**
0034		**afternoon?**
0035	Class	No!
0036	Teacher	**I wasn't having fun and you weren't**
0037		**having fun. What can we do differently**
0038		**next week so we don't have this**
0039		**problem next week? What can we learn**
0039		**from this day so we don't do the same**
0040		**thing twice? Lizie?**

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0041 Lizie      Get ready on time.
0042 Teacher    And that's what the class discipline
0043            is for.  I mean, the reason we got so
0044            long wasn't because I was giving you
0045            extra time.  It was because I need it
0046            to get through to everybody because
0047            you were taking so long.  Our schedule
0048            does not allow us any extra time.
0049            There is no extra time in our day to
0050            do things.  I barely have time to
0051            check homework and grades and that's
0052            one of the reasons I made you
0053            go to art today instead of that other
0054            program; it's because I needed time to
0055            go through your work and
0056            get ready for math; I needed that
0057            time.  And so, it is really important
0058            when we talk about the standards we
0059            set, when we send the newsletter to
0060            your parents, it's all part of this.
0061            Not turning our work in, not
0062            putting our name on it; it's showing
0063            me that you don't care.  I care; I
0064            care enough to check into your work,
0065            and grade your work.  You care enough
0066            to do your work, but I need you to
0067            take it to the next level.  I need you
0068            to do a good, a better job than what
0069            you've been doing.  Okay?  We are in
0070            fourth-grade.  I am not going to
0071            say if you didn't turn in your work,
0072            to turn it in.  I am not going to say
0073            you didn't put your name.  If you
0074            don't do it right, you are just going
0075            to have to redo it.  I am going to
0076            write a letter to your parents; that's
0077            a given.  Yes?
0078 Student    I understand why you were mad at
0079            people.
0080 Teacher    Uh?  I am not mad.  I am just
0081            frustrated, not mad.  There are so
0082            many people and then you guys get
0083            upset at me when I have to make you
0084            sit in and then it gets more
0085            frustrating.  So, if we can have some
0086            common ground, some mutual respect.
0087            We don't have that.  I call you, I make
0088            eye contact with the person that's
0089            talking, and still they don't do
0090            anything.  We really need to work on
0091            that; we really need to get it
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0092            together. (2s.)  Like, we have six
0093            minutes before we need to be in our
0094            places for literature.
0095            Uh, anyway.
0096            Our policy is that when you are in the
0097            classroom you need to be always ready
0098            to listen.  From doing a rough draft
0099            for writer's workshop to listening to
0100            the D.A.R.E. officer, or anything.
0101            When you work with me or you work with
0102            Ms. Jules, or with Mrs. Adams, it's
0103            the same.  And I think that we all
0104            here, that and we don't need to ask
0105            that question.  It's like you don't
0106            need to ask 'Do I need to capitalize
0107            a proper noun?'  When you're saying
0108            that over and over, that's what you
0109            are really saying to me.    My
0110            expectations are way up here for you
0111            in what I want you to achieve, and
0112            right now, you are only up to
0113            here; you are only half way.  We can
0114            produce better work, we can be better
0115            students, I know you can, and I am
0116            going to help you get there.
0117            And it's painful sometimes; it's
0118            painful, like today, but we learn from
0119            it and we try not to make
0120            the same mistakes.  Mario?
0121 Mario     Now we can act better.
0122 Teacher   I know you can do it.
0123            Our goal for next week is to not do
0124            what we did this week.
0125 Mario     Try to be the best we can be.
0126 Teacher   Okay, show me that you are ready by
0127            getting your folder and your book.
```

In lines 32-34 the teacher talks to the class about what happened prior to coming to class and explains to her students how she felt about it. This class did not attend a special presentation at the school auditorium because they had other things to complete and they were taking too long to complete their assignments. Ms. Naylor

acknowledges the fact that neither she nor the class had fun (lines 36-40) and also explains to the class that because of the high number of students and their assignments, they did not have enough time to do other things.

In addition, Ms. Naylor reminds her students of the need to be doing things on time, to show more responsibility about their work and its quality. She talks to them about her expectations of them in terms of behavior and performance, and tells them that if they do not do what they are supposed to do they will just have to face the consequences (lines 57-120). A student remarks that the teacher is "mad" with them but Ms. Naylor explains that she is frustrated because of their lack of mutual respect.

Finally, in lines 113-127, she tells the students that she expects the quality of their work to improve and that she will help them in their efforts. She ends this short discourse by reminding the students of their responsibilities and the need to cooperate with her.

In summary, the messages Ms. Naylor communicated to her students were about:

- The importance of starting lessons on time.
- The importance of being ready to start work.
- The need for students to improve their behavior.

- Things students have not being doing with their work.

- Consequences students face for not doing what is expected.

- The pressures and demands the teacher is experiencing because of the lack of student cooperation.

- The need to work and act as a fourth-grader.

- The high, positive expectations the teacher has about her students.

Excerpt two is drawn from another day in class A. After taking a spelling test, the teacher divides the class into groups for mathematics games, assigns students to the various groups, and the mathematics games begin. The teacher monitors the students' understanding of the game rules. Some children are using the tables in the back of the room, some are on the floor, two groups by the computer center, and two more are in the front of the room. The students have been playing mathematics games for twenty minutes when they get interrupted by the D.A.R.E. officer, who has come to talk to them about drugs and at-risk behaviors. The children show disappointment because they have to put their games away and they have not been able to play games for the last few weeks. The teacher leaves while the officer is giving her presentation, and she returns a few minutes before it is time to go to lunch.

Excerpt 2

| Line | Speaker | Discourse |

Line	Speaker	Discourse
0130	Teacher	Please make sure when we line up for
0131		lunch. One, two, three, eyes on me.
0132		I am sorry we didn't get to finish
0133		the math games today. We will be
0134		having them next Friday. Hum, I will
0135		wait for everybody to get ready.
0136		Hum, what we need to do is line up
0137		quietly for lunch. When we line up
0138		for lunch I want you to put your stuff
0139		on your desk quietly.
0140	Students	Shh!
0141		I want to thank the people who did a
0142		real good job today. Roberta, and
0143		the people at her table did a real
0144		good job, hum, once you got started,
0145		over there, too. Today it was kind
0146		of crazy because we tried to fit
0147		everything in.
0148		Some of the games were new and a
0149		little more difficult, that's why
0150		I needed to explain. (3s.) So, I
0151		needed some patience and
0152		understanding. And some of these
0153		games are new and tougher and some
0154		that means that some rules are not
0155		really clear. That means you need
0156		to be patient with the people in your
0157		group and with me because sometimes I
0158		have to deal with a lot of people.
0159		Hum, we will try this again next
0160		Friday to see how we do. Hum, I
0161		liked that you guys did real well
0162		with the D.A.R.E officer. Some if
0163		you did talk a little bit much, but
0164		overall most people were participating
0165		and did a real good job. Let's try to
0166		keep that up. And try to improve in
0167		our behavior. When we get back from
0168		lunch I have a lot of work that people
0169		need to make up that's going to take
0170		a little bit a little while. I am
0171		going to hand out the papers and tell
0172		people who owe me work from this week.
0173		So, you need to be patient. If you
0174		get up and come see me while I am
0175		trying to help people on their work

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0176            you're going to have to wait 'till I
0177            get to you.  Okay?  I'd like our line
0178            leader to line up.  I'd like, (2s.)
0179            if you are wearing blue today and have
0180            a lunch box to line up.
```

[The children and the teacher go to lunch. After recess
they return to the classroom. The children take some
time to settle down; some are chatting, others are reading
silently at their desks, and some others are putting their
lunch boxes in their cubbie holes.]

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0181  Teacher   Okay, I need you to redo this for me
0182            today; Jane, Marcus, Jonathan, Kyle,
0183            Gloria, Jim, Melissa, and Patrick.
0184            Rainbow words need to be in 3 colors.
0185            Okay, math worksheet, these people:
0186            Marcus, Alexa, Roberta, Michelle,
0187            Pam, Melissa, Christopher, and that's
0188            it.  If your name was called for that
0189            you need to get your worksheet.
0190            A lot of you did it, but you didn't
0191            put your name on it, so you're going
0192            to have to redo it.
0199            No, you were told.
0200            A lot of you didn't do the work right
0201            and you need to redo it.
0203            You need to color the water table blue.
0204            Rainbow work must be done.  It must be
0205            done in three colors and you need to
0206            write it in cursive.
0207            Jimie, you owe me my literature.
0209            When I call your name, you have work
0210            to finish you can bring it to me.
0211            Otherwise you should not be out of
0212            your seat.
0213            Marcus, you need to finish your work.
0214            You need to have a seat, Marcus.
0215            You  need to have a seat, Roberta.
0216            Wait 'till I call you name, Albert.
0222            Also, I am missing a lot of assignment
0223            sheets today.  Remember, if your
0224            assignment sheet is not signed, for
0225            the majority of the days, you don't go
0226            to recess.  So, Marcus, it's only
0227            signed one day.  Andreas, it's only
0228            signed one day. Lizie, it's only
0229            signed one day.  Roberta, it's not
0230            signed at all. Gloria, not signed,
0231            you are missing a bunch of assignment
0232            sheets.
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```
0233  Teacher    Hey, I told you I was going
0234             to be cracking down on this.  When
0235             there is not a name on your homework,
0236             that policy that we talked about
0237             fourth-grade work.  The work I've
0238             been getting has not being fourth
0239             grade work.  I am sorry, but that's
0240             it.  Your assignment sheet, that's
0241             your work every night, needs to be
0242             filled out and turned in on Friday.
0243             If not, you are going to redo it.
0244             Sorry, that's the way it works
```

In lines 130-133, Ms. Naylor gives instructions to the students about how to properly line-up for lunch and in lines 134-139 she is apologetic about their mathematics games being interrupted. She promises to give them time next week and waits for the students to get ready for lunch. Her waiting usually consisted of sitting at her stool, by the front door, watching for people who put their things away and get ready for lunch. The students were supposed to sit quietly at their desks and wait for her signal to line up.

The teacher reminds her class about the proper way of lining-up, and she verbally acknowledges the students who are ready (lines 137-147). Moreover, the people who were well-behaved get to line up first. While she is waiting for the rest of the students to get ready, she talks to her class about the fact that she could not spend much time with every group during mathematics games because some

games were new and she needed to explain the instructions to a number of children (see lines 148-158).

Ms. Naylor thanks the students for their improved behavior during the officer's presentation, and she asks them to "keep it up." She also explains to the class what she will be doing with them as soon as they come back from class. Ms. Naylor prepares her students by telling them that she will need their cooperation in the afternoon (lines 160-173).

The children return to their class after lunch and recess, and the teacher calls on people who need to re-do different pieces of work because they either forgot to complete it, or did not do it according to the teacher's specifications and standards. More than two-thirds of the class has to re-do assignments, and a lot of people cannot go to recess because they did not get parent signatures on their homework assignment sheet (lines 180-229).

In lines 233-244, the teacher explains to the students that they are facing the consequences of not doing their work right and not being responsible with their work.

In summary, the messages Ms. Naylor communicated to her students were about:

- Student behavior before students line up for lunch.

- Student behavior while waiting for everybody to line up.

- Teacher's feelings about not finishing a fun activity.

- Reinforcement of well-behaved students.

- Teacher needing student cooperation and understanding.

- How students should work with others in their groups.

- How students should relate with others in their groups.

- How students should behave while teacher is working with other students in class.

- Reinforcement of students who participated in class.

- The need for students to improve their behavior.

- Students' work responsibilities: complete all work, do work right, don't forget to turn it in, put name on it, turn in all necessary papers, have homework sheet signed by parent.

Excerpt three is taken from a morning in class B. It is first thing in the morning and the students are working on their daily challenge. A male student is walking around, visiting other students, while the teacher is at her desk looking at the homework the children are turning in. After the pledge to the flag, morning announcements, and lunch count, Mrs. Cleary goes over the challenge with her students.

Excerpt 3

Line Speaker   Discourse

0025	Teacher	Michael, I want you to stop
0026		right now. Okay, let's look at
0028		these words. Number one, bumpy
0029		is to something as crooked is to
0030		straight. Look at crooked and
0031		straight.
0032		What can you tell us about those
0033		words, Michael?
0034	Michael	Crooked is crooked and straight
0035		is straight.
0036	Teacher	So, what kind of words are they?
0037	Michael	Hum, synonyms.
0038	Teacher	No synonyms, means they are the
0039		same. So, they are, they are not
0040		the same, they are...
0041	Class	Opposites!
0042	Teacher	They are opposite!
0043		Doreen are you finished?
0044	Doreen	Yeah.
0045		I need you to look up here.

[The teacher completes and corrects the challenge
with the class. The teacher walks around the room
and gives written feedback to children about their
challenge.]

0089	Teacher	I hope that you will start to do
0090		better and think about
0091		relationships between words and
0092		how they relate to each other.
0093		Remember, I said you have to
0094		look for the parallel in the
0095		words. You have to
0096		learn how to do this because in
0097		high school when you take tests
0098		like, to get into college, these
0099		kinds of things are in the test.
0100		Analogies, and you'll be a better
0101		test taker if you start to learn
0102		now how to think about these
0103		things like that. It will help
0104		you become a better thinker.

[The children get their D. A. R. E. folders from their
desks and while they are waiting for the D. A. R. E.

officer to come the teacher reads aloud from a
book. The officer is late, so the teacher
continues reading to the class. She reads for
15 minutes and then asks the class to put their
things away and get ready to do some writing.
The D. A. R. E. officer did not come.]

0158	Teacher	Put your things away and take out
0159		a pencil. You need to take a
0160		piece of paper out.
0161		We are going to do a writing
0162		prompt.
0188	Teacher	Doreen, do you know what you need
0189		to do?
0190	Doreen	Yes.
0191		I am not entirely sure why there
0192		are people wandering around the
0193		room and talking as loudly as you
0194		are. Everybody knows what they
0195		need to do and this need to be
0196		finished by next Wednesday. Your
0197		sloppy copy needs to be done by
0198		Monday. You don't have a lot of
0200		time. You're writing four
0201		different paragraphs. A
0202		paragraph has at least four or
0203		five sentences in it.
0204	Barbara	Can it be more?
0205	Teacher	Yes it can be more.
0206		One sentence is not a paragraph.
0207		If you are writing about what
0208		they eat, you need to write a
0209		lot. You need to be writing five
0210		or six sentences right now about
0211		the different foods that they
0212		ate. Not one sentence. We have
0213		lots of information.
0210		Each paragraph is going to be on
0211		a different topic. You do one
0212		about what they looked like, one
0213		about what their clothing looks
0214		like, another one about
0213		what they eat and another one
0214		about their homes looked like in
0215		their villages. There need to be
0216		four different paragraphs. This
0217		one everyone is going to write.
0218		Choose four of these to write
0219		about and write a whole paragraph
0220		about each one of these.
0221	A student	Do we get to type it?

```
0222  Teacher    Probably not.  We don't have
0223             enough time for thirty people to
0224             type on the computers and get it
0225             done by Wednesday.
```

In lines 25-33 Mrs. Cleary tells Michael to sit at his desk and stop wandering around the room. She then starts reviewing the challenge and asks the students to share their answers. Mrs. Cleary involves Michael in the activity and she encourages him to think of the right answer (lines 34-40). Mrs. Cleary makes sure that everybody has the same answer by giving her students specific feedback. In lines 42-43 she checks on Doreen who has been talking and requests her attention to this activity.

After the completion of the challenge, Mrs. Cleary gives some more feedback to her students about how to work with analogies. She encourages them to think critically about "relationships among words" and she discusses the meaningfulness and purpose of analogies for their future test performance and overall learning (lines 89-104).

Later on, Mrs. Cleary reads aloud to her students for minutes and then they go to lunch. The students and teacher return from lunch and recess break and in lines 158-162 they get ready to start writing. Mrs. Cleary gives instructions about what supplies are needed for this activity. The children start working on their writing

assignment and in lines (188-189) Mrs. Cleary monitors Doreen's work by asking her if she understands what needs to be done.

In lines 191-203 Mrs. Cleary responds to a number of students walking around during writing by reminding of how they should behave during work. She also reminds students that the project is due soon and she gives some students specific feedback about how much they need to write on each topic. Mrs. Cleary offers a lot of specific information to her class about the specifics of the assignment and she monitors the progress of students who are on and off task.

In summary, the messages Mrs. Cleary communicated to her students were about:

- How students should approach specific tasks.

- Student behavior during work.

- Student involvement during work.

- Monitoring students' behavior.

- Monitoring students' progress.

- The need for students to think carefully and critically about information.

- The meaningfulness and purpose of class activities.

- What students need to have before they start working on a task.

- Specific instructions and feedback about a task.

- Students' work responsibilities: turn work in on time, do it right, complete all work.

- The teacher's interest in students' progress.

Excerpt four is drawn from a morning visit to class B. Mrs. Cleary has been working with her students on the daily challenge and later she does a lesson on Florida's climate.

Excerpt 4

Line	Speaker	Discourse
0123	Teacher	How do we find information about
0124		what page to turn to in the book?
0125	Joshua	We look at the back of the book.
0126		Do we look at the back of the book
0127		or at the front of the book?
0128	Student	The front.
0129	Teacher	The front; that's not called the
0130		index, but it's called the table of
0131		contents.
0132		We are going to make sure we use
0133		that table of contents.
0134		This morning we are going to read a
0135		bit more about Florida's environment.
0136		We know a lot of information about
0137		Florida's environment already, since
0138		we've been studying the environment
0139		and have been learning about animals
0149		in the everglades and the everglades
0150		is a big part of Florida's
0151		environment. There are some other
0152		things that are important in the
0153		environment, too. (2s.)
0154		What do you think most people think
0155		about when they say the word
0156		Florida? What comes to most
0157		people's mind? (3s.) What do you
0158		think, Cindy?
0159	Cindy	Beaches, hot sun.
0160	Lucas	Oranges, sunshine.
0161	Dimitri	Disney and MGM.
0162	Teacher	The most important thing in Florida,
0163		is its' environment. The reason
0164		why we have all these
0165		attractions here that Dimitri
0166		mentioned, is because we really have

```
0167              a very good climate here.  What we
0168              are going to do is read about what
0169              exactly is climate and how it
0170              affects our lives in the state
0171              of Florida and how important it is.
0172              So, let's read.
0173              There are living and non-living things
0174              in the environment, and hum, we are
0175              going to find out how the sunshine
0176              affects the plants that we grow
0177              here the foods that we eat, and also
0178              the jobs that we have.  Linda?
```

[Linda reads aloud from her book.]

```
0179  Teacher    Thank you.  Let's look at those maps.
0180              Here is a map of Florida.  Look at
0181              the temperature in January.  What
0182              would be the average temperature, in
0183              Naples, in January?  You need to
0184              raise your hand and look at the pink
0185              and purple map on page 45.
0186              I want you to tell me what is the
0187              average temperature in Fahrenheit
0188              degrees in January, in Naples.
0189              Michael?
0190  Michael    61-71.
```

[The teacher continues asking questions about the temperatures of other cities in Florida and helps the students understand that the state's climate helps create a longer growing season for crops.]

```
0191              Remember, we have East, West, North,
0192              and South.
0193              Excuse me, it is very noisy in here.
0194              There is a lot of noise.  Joshua, you
0195              need to get to your seat.
0196              Okay, you need to get ready for a Mad
0197              Minute.
0198              Joshua, you need to go back to your
0199              table; I don't want you to sit in the
0200              back table.
```

The morning bell has rung, the children have unpacked their book bags, have turned in their homework, have completed their daily challenge with the teacher, and at

8:47 a.m. they start Florida history (a social studies
lesson). Mrs. Cleary is standing in the front of the room
and in lines 122-123 she asks her students to think about
how people locate information in a book. One students
says, "we look at the back of the book." The teacher does
not reject his answer but instead repeats it. She later
calls on a girl, who says we look at "the front" of a book.
Mrs. Cleary then explains that people look at the table of
contents and informs her students that this morning she is
going to have them use the table of contents in their
social studies book.

In lines 133-154, the teacher first introduces the
day's topic and then she draws connections between the
students' past experiences and knowledge of the topic and
the new information. Mrs. Cleary involves her students in
a discussion about Florida and its environment (lines 154-
158) and she encourages the students to think critically
about the relationship between Florida's climate and the
theme parks in Florida (lines 162-171).

Later on, the teacher reads aloud from the textbook
while the students follow along in their books. In lines
173-178 she comments on the material they read and explains
that they are going to learn a lot more about Florida's
climate and environment. She occasionally asks various
students to read aloud from their books. In lines 179-188
Mrs. Cleary comments on various temperatures in Florida and

reminds some students who call out answers that they need to raise their hands before they speak. Mrs. Cleary involves more students in the discussion by asking them to find the annual temperature of various cities in Florida, and in line 193 she comments on the noise level in the room. She completes this activity, and in lines 196-200 Mrs. Cleary prepares her students for the next activity and checks on a student's behavior.

In summary, the messages Mrs. Cleary communicated to her students were about:

- How students should locate information in a book.

- The need for students to think critically about information.

- The meaningfulness and purpose of certain information.

- Student involvement during discussions.

- Student behavior during discussions.

- Student cooperation during activities.

- Monitoring students' behavior.

- Monitoring students' progress.

- What students need to have before they start working on a task.

- Specific feedback about a task.

- The teacher's interest in students' understanding of material.

- The teacher's interest in students applying and critically evaluating material.

<u>Discussion</u>

The four transcripts discussed in this chapter illustrate some of the similarities and differences in the two classroom settings. Both teachers stressed the importance of responsible student behavior inside and outside the classroom, the importance of quality work, and also the need for cooperation and collaboration among classroom members.

Ms. Naylor and Mrs. Cleary made common curriculum decisions for their classes, used similar materials and packets, and spent a lot of time planning together. Both teachers worked as a team they had some common academic and non-academic goals. The students in their classrooms worked on the same literature books for language arts, and did many projects together (e.g., making and launching rockets, or the medieval literature unit). Both teachers were very interested in their students' academic and social growth, and both wanted to know how they could best help and understand their students.

Although the four excerpts illustrate numerous similarities in the practices of the two teachers, they also indicate some differences. Both teachers stress performance, high work standards, appropriate classroom behavior, and respect of others. At the time this study was conducted, both teachers were working hard to prepare

their students for the "Florida Writes" exam. Writer's workshop was part of all students' daily activities. In addition, both teachers used Mad Minutes (a timed mathematics facts "exercise") and mathematics games, which took place every Friday. The fourth-grade schedule included a two and a half hour language arts block, which was packed with children's literature, reading, reading skills, and writing activities. Both teachers invested a lot of their time in language arts and math.

The teachers' emphasis on these subjects seems to be have influenced how their students perceived themselves and how they interpreted their teachers' perceptions about them in class. Specific subject abilities and performance, classroom behavior, work responsibilities, and relationships with others constituted the content of students' self-perceptions and interpretations.

Both teachers had a "Community" bulletin board in their rooms. There were many posters and written messages posted in each classroom. Figure 4 shows the message that was posted on the "Community Board" in each classroom:

> We are all a part
> of a community of friends:
> My teacher, my classmates and me.
> We are all a part of
> a community of friends.
> A caring and safe place to be.

<u>Figure 4</u>.   Community Bulletin Board Message.

On the "Community" board there were pictures of each student in the class, and some children had different color stars next to their picture. There was a different star for each mathematics function, and as children passed their mathematics facts they would get a star for that function next to their picture. In one of the interviews with Mrs. Cleary, the researcher asked her about these stars, to which she responded:

> Those are for when we do timing and basic facts, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and then mixed facts, so they have like five minutes to complete it at the beginning of each math session, so when they get, they have to get 90%, and if they get 90%, they get a star for that; that's why you see different children having different stars; some are at a different family of facts than others.

In one of the interviews Ms. Naylor said that aside from using the stars on the "Community" board, she also uses the "Super Solver Award" to encourage students to work

hard on their mathematics. The following is an excerpt from that interview:

> I use the "Super Solver Award" when we have addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and mixed facts. When we have all these scrambled up, and you have certain time, you have to do so many in a minute or five minutes. People who pass all facts get this award.

Furthermore, both teachers were interested in improving student behavior. Both teachers rewarded appropriate classroom behavior by giving students free homework passes, or extra computer time, or sometimes by giving them a lollipop, or stickers. In addition, Mrs. Cleary recognized improved student behavior by writing a student's name on a star and placing it on the inside of the entrance door to her classroom. Mrs. Cleary labeled that display of stars "Shining Stars in 4th Grade." For example, some of the students received a star for having the "Most improved behavior," "The highest math test score," for "Always following directions," for being "Perfect in line," and for being an "Outstanding helper."

The same class rules were posted in both classrooms. The following are rules (exact text from signs) that were posted in both classrooms. Figure 5 shows the rules that were authored by the school and Figures 6, 7, 8, and 9 show rules that were authored by the two fourth-grade teachers.

SCHOOL RULES

1. Be where you are supposed to be--and be on time

2. Be prepared and on task in class

3. Respect the rights and responsibilities of others

4. Strive for excellence

Figure 5. School Rules.

TEACHER'S FLAG RULES

1. Be in your seat and ready to begin when the bell rings.

2. Turn in your homework by 8:15.

3. Select a library book by 8:15.

4. Eyes on me when I count to 3.

Figure 6. Teacher's Flag Rules.

RULES TO PLAY BY

- Stand up to speak

- Use a loud, clear speaking voice

- Be a good listener

- **S**it up
  Lean
  Ask good questions
  Nod
  Track

Figure 7. Rules To Play By.

THIS IS HOW YOU GET WHAT YOU WANT FROM ME

- Raise your hand quietly

- Be pleasant

- Listen to others (and me)

- Follow directions

- Participate with enthusiasm

- Smile

Figure 8. How Students Can Get What They Want From The
Teacher.

THIS DOES NOT WORK WITH ME
•   Jumping up to ask questions
•   Yelling in class or in my face
•   Arguing

<u>Figure 9</u>. What Does Not Work With The Teacher.

Class goals were written on the board, and "walk quietly in line" was a goal that stayed on the board, in both classes, for five weeks. Other goals were added periodically (e.g., "receive more compliments"). When the researcher asked Mrs. Cleary to talk about the purpose of a "class goal," Mrs. Cleary said:

> For one, because it gives me an opportunity to discuss things, you know, if there is a problem that I see occurring, we'll get some goal setting, you know. They do a good job about walking in line quietly and that was a big problem, so after we had a big problem walking in and out of class quietly and in order, we put it in our class agenda so we could all discuss it. So, sometimes there are issues that we as a class discuss and concerns that we have, so it gives me an opportunity to talk about things that concern all of us.

Although both teachers accented the need for appropriate student behavior inside and outside the classroom, there were differences in the way they approached this issue. Ms. Naylor, as some of her students

mentioned in a previous section, talked more to her
students about their inappropriate behavior and also about
the pressures such behavior created for her. Mrs. Cleary
tended to give her students more examples, and she modeled
how students could become more responsible for their own
behavior. The following excerpts from an interview with
each teacher, help illustrate this point:

> Ms.Naylor: I feel like I don't always have to be
> critical of them, and my conversations are always, but
> you don't want to get in the habit of always sounding
> so positive and then very critical of them, because
> they then know that that's the pattern, that they are
> going to be slammed in a minute. That's one thing I
> have a hard time with, having those conversations
> giving them feedback, but really trying to give it to
> them in a way that they don't feel crushed. I think
> I am still working on it and I am still trying to grow
> because that's the hardest thing: giving them
> appropriate feedback.

> Mrs. Cleary: Well, our philosophy here is to stress
> responsibility training rather than rewards. I mean,
> we do have consequences but we really try to stress
> the responsibility aspect rather than I am going to
> give you checks and minuses on the board for your
> behavior. Like this student today, he had a problem
> with another student and I encouraged him to solve it
> and talk to her, but he would do anything to avoid
> problem solving.

Although "put-ups" and a "class agenda" (both
artifacts of local usage that refer to a specific *practice)*
were evident in both classes, Mrs. Cleary (class B) used
them more than Ms. Naylor. In the following interview
excerpt, Mrs. Cleary explains:

We usually have class meeting on Wednesdays.

What happens is, we have an agenda sheet over there, the one you saw on the board, and the kids get to sign up to sign up for issues they want to discuss and we start up discussing their concerns and vote on things as a class.

About the "put-ups." Every child can write a note to another or to one of the teachers. They can do it whenever they have free time; we also have a basket with paper slips that fit the folders, for the children to write their messages on. It's kind of neat and the kids like it. The purpose of the "put-ups" is not to be like a mailbox where kids can write notes and ask others "Hi, how are you doing today?", that kind of thing. It's not for them to write "I like you." It's for writing compliments to others and saying nice things to each other.

Finally, although the way students interacted with others in class was something both teachers were concerned about, Mrs. Cleary spent more time talking with her students on one-on-one basis, gave more specific feedback, and modeled ways to relate with others more often than Ms. Naylor. Figure 10 contains a copy of the exact text on one of the posters in class A and B, about how students should interact with others in class.

HOW TO TREAT OTHERS

1. Respect others:

    • work quietly

    • be polite

    • listen when others are talking

2. Keep hands and feet to yourself

Figure 10. How To Treat Others.

In the following interview excerpts, both teachers discuss the ways they stress relationships among student in their classrooms:

> Mrs. Cleary: We talk. Like today, "What are the kinds of things we can say about people?" Like you can say "you are courteous, you are kind, you are considerate or responsible," and talk about kind of ways to encourage or compliment each other, like "you are kind, you are responsible," and talk about kinds of ways to encourage or compliment each other like, "you are a good athlete," you know. Another thing about this class, is that they get along with each other so well. I mean, we really want to try to build a sense of community and I don't know if I spend too much time like stressing "We need to get along; we need to get along," and that's important, but I want to kind of back up and let them know that it's okay to disagree.

> Ms. Naylor: I mean, I try but it's not all the time in the day I can have conversations with them and give them more personal feedback and so, I think that's been cut out in our day, especially this year. There's more and more things pouring on us to do, so there's less time for me talking to them, and I guess that's the way I can get a sense of how they feel and

what's going on. I think a lot of them want that personal connection, and I don't think they always get that with being thirty in there. They don't get that time with me, just the two of us, because there's always someone interrupting when they want to tell me something important, someone else is waiting always behind them. That's really important to them, and I mean it's important to me, and I feel that I don't always give it to them.

In one of the interviews, Ms. Naylor talked about her non-verbal reactions to some of the students' inappropriate behavior and how she wanted to change that. She explained:

I am really bad about my body language, like showing what I feel and I guess, I do, I do. I don't take things so personally when I am teaching and if you misbehave I just enact the consequence. I think I am learning and I think that's what they see a lot of time; I think they read a lot from my body language, my voice, the way I change my voice. I don't yell at them when I get really, I get really quiet so I let them know that instead of yelling you can be mad and hold your temper, and so.

For Mrs. Cleary, having a "light-hearted relationship" with her students, where she could talk with them either about personal issues, birthday parties, or personal interests, was an important goal. Ms. Naylor said that she "didn't have as much time as she would like to have with her students." On the other hand, Mrs. Cleary tried to create as many opportunities as possible to help students learn either how to get along with each other or what exactly was needed with their work. For example:

Mrs. Cleary: One of the things I have been working on is using "I-messages" and I think that I can really practice that and they can get really good at that and use it consistently. That will strengthen their relationships with one another because they'll be talking about how the things that they do make them feel. So, I think that this lets them know that not only about the expectations I have for them, but that I care enough for them to tell them to tell them when they are letting me down or they are doing the right thing.

Academically, I try to give feedback on their papers, and even with Mad Minutes if they get like 89 and they need 90 to get a star, I tell them "Oh, you are so close," "keep trying," or "you've really made an improvement."

Mrs. Cleary predicted that most of her students would have a "pretty good idea" about what she thought of them, and she added that "some may have a better idea than others." On the other hand, Ms. Naylor hoped that "they know, I think, they know." Ms. Naylor believed that:

I think they typically know what I want from them and what I expect from them, and that I do have high standards for them, but I haven't had much time with them. I am trying to be clear about what I want them to do and what I expect them to do. I would think they would think positive things.

Mrs. Cleary added that:

I put forth an effort particularly in the beginning of the year because I think it helps build a personal relationship. I try to talk to them and I have interactions with them every day because I think the better relationship I can build with them the better they are going to do in school.

Finally, both teachers believed that some of their students probably had a better understanding of their perceptions about them than others. According to Ms.

Naylor, the students who "seek me out at a good time and receive criticism well" may have a better understanding of what she thought of them in class. Mrs. Cleary thought that students with "outgoing personalities" and "those who demand that I talk to them about things," the ones who "ask for feedback rather than the ones who do not ask anything," may have a better idea of what she thought of them.

In summary, in these two fourth-grade classrooms, students' interpretations of their teachers' perceptions about them, were products of an interactive social process between children and teacher. Each teacher's *practices* (i.e., the things they did together and differently in class) shaped children's interpersonal perceptions. When it came to the construction of their interpretations, children selected different information from their teacher's *practices* than when they constructed their self-perceptions.

The things that were emphasized by each teacher in her classroom seemed to influence the interpersonal perceptions children constructed in that classroom. Students based their interpretations on information that was made available to them through verbal, written, and non-verbal communication with the teacher. Students in class B reported more information about their teacher's perceptions about them because the teacher provided the students with

specific feedback both on academic and non-academic matters.

The analysis of data, collected from (a) 60 fourth-grade students' written reports, (b) 21 students' oral reports, and (c) classroom observations in both classes indicates that students' interpersonal perceptions in these classrooms are products of student-teacher interactions.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to uncover the *nature* of students' interpersonal perceptions in two fourth-grade classrooms. Researchers have investigated children's perceptions of self, objects, others, and events, but there is a lack of research evidence about the content and process of children's interpretations of their significant others' perceptions about them.

Only recently have researchers begun to examine students' perceptions from a social interaction perspective. From this perspective people's perceptions of self and others' perceptions about them, are viewed as products of their interactions in social settings. This study aimed to provide a step in filling the gap of little empirical evidence available to demonstrate the content and process involved in the construction of students' interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them in class.

To study the *nature* of students' interpersonal perceptions, the researcher (a) analyzed 60 fourth-grade students' written and oral responses and (b) observed classroom interactions in two classrooms overal period of

five months. In addition, informal discussions and interviews were conducted with the two teachers. The data collected were analyzed using procedures described by Spradley (1980).

Analysis of the data produced a number of interesting results. There were differences in the content of students' self-perceptions and interpretations of what their teacher thought of them in class. Students' self-perceptions were loaded with information about abilities in various subjects and sports, physical characteristics, demographics, and family information. Students' interpretations of what their teacher thought about them in class consisted of information on specific abilities and performance, personality characteristics, and classroom behavior.

Students' interpretations reflected their classroom culture: students interpreted their teachers' perceptions of them in terms of what they had heard or seen the teacher emphasize in their classroom. Students' interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them were shaped, constrained, and supported by their classroom setting and experiences. Students' constructed their interpersonal perceptions by interpreting their social experiences with the teacher in class and the feedback they received from their teacher.

Different students possessed different types and amounts of information about what their teacher thought of them, but all students asked for more specific feedback from their teachers. Girls reported more information-- orally and in written form--than boys. Girls provided more specific examples and evidence to support their interpretations than boys. The more outgoing students seemed to have more specific information about what their teacher thought of them than other children. These students also seemed to have more frequent interactions with the teacher in class. Students expressed their desire to know more about what their teacher thought of them in specific areas such as, academic performance, behavior, and personality characteristics. Students wished for more *specific verbal* feedback from their teachers and more time to interact with their teachers. As one student said: "I would like to know what she thinks of me not only like in math and stuff, but also in *tiny*, certain things." (BM24.1).

The results of this study showed that: (a) these fourth-grade children were capable of forming interpersonal cognitive reciprocations; (b) the students analyzed the teacher's verbal, non-verbal, co-verbal, and written feedback; (c) what a teacher shares or does not share with

his/her students in class has implications for the
construction of students' interpersonal perceptions; (d)
teachers' practices and classroom interactions with their
students provide the "ingredients" for students'
interpersonal perceptions; (e) a qualitative approach to
the study of interpersonal perception in classroom settings
offers detailed and insightful data about children's
processes, and (f) this area of research warrants
methodological triangulation.

Limitations of the Results

This study was not undertaken to describe prevailing
student perceptions, match or mis-match between children's
interpretations and their teacher's actual perceptions of
them, or typical classroom interactions. The results of
this study are not generalizable in describing the
interpersonal perceptions of an at-large population of
students and classrooms. However, the researcher believes
that the results of this study can be viewed as
generalizable in the sense that they describe possibilities
for classroom interaction and practices. That is, *ideas*
about how students develop self-perceptions and
interpretations about their teacher's perceptions may be
exported to other sites to continue raising questions about
students' interpersonal perceptions in other classrooms.

This study was conducted at an elementary school, in two classes, with two teachers, and 60 fourth-grade students. The results of the study describe the content of these particular students' interpersonal perceptions and the information they used to construct them. While the students were sexually, academically, socio-economically, and racially balanced, they are a group selected non-randomly. Therefore, the specific results of this study may or may not apply to other fourth-grade students. Also, the particular characteristics of students' self-perceptions and interpretations are securely weaved within the unique characteristics of their classrooms. Although the content and process of students' interpersonal perceptions are limited to the two classes under study, the implications for research and classroom practice are abundant.

Each classroom setting may constitute a limitation on the results of this study. Students' interpretations of their teacher's perceptions about them may differ depending on class goals and overall classroom culture. The teachers themselves may constitute another limitation on the results of this study. Each teacher interacted uniquely with her students, and both teachers were interested in the topic of interpersonal perception, which may not be the case for other teachers. In addition, each classroom had a full-

time intern and although the researcher focused in the
students' interpretations of their regular classroom
teacher's perceptions about them the students' interactions
with the intern could have affected their classroom
interactions with the regular teacher. The data showed
that students had no difficulty in differentiating between
their teacher and the intern. The presence of the interns
in these two settings constitutes a limitation as it may
not be the case for other classes.

Another limitation of the results has to do with
methods used in this study. Although children's free-
responses provided abundant information about the content
of their perceptions, some children's responses may have
been influenced by their writing abilities or even
attitudes toward writing. The repeated free-responses
enabled the researcher to see the consistency in children's
written responses, but because of time limits the students
could write only for ten to fifteen minutes each time.
Writing was a part of both classes under study, but that
may not be the case for other classrooms.

Repeated interviews with students proved to be very
helpful in providing insight about the information students
used to construct interpersonal perceptions. Moreover,
interviews enabled the researcher to see a consistency
between the children's written and oral responses. Face-

to-face interviewing could become a challenging situation for some children who are asked to share their personal perspectives with an outsider. Individual student characteristics may have something to do with how much information some students shared with the researcher. Also, because of time constraints, the researcher was able to interview only 21 out of the 60 students in the two classes, which caused her to miss the perspectives of other students.

Another important limitation has to do with the length of observations in the two class settings. The researcher observed classroom interactions over a five-month period, and she became a very familiar and comfortable figure in the classrooms. Nevertheless, the researcher was an outsider, and her personal perspective constitutes a limitation to her interpretations.

The final limitation has to do with the purpose of the study. The researcher limited her analysis to a description and interpretation of the students' interpersonal perceptions. The researcher's investigation into this area was not aimed to consider other variables that may relate to the construction of such perceptions, such as self-concept or personality characteristics.

Relationships of Findings to Previous Research

The present study adds depth and breadth to the body
of research on children's interpersonal perceptions. As
Combs (1962) suggested, different children have different
perceptions and form different interpretations because of
the unique way they view themselves, their teacher's
perceptions of them, and because of the individual meanings
they assign to their classroom experiences and
interactions.

This study supports Wittrock's (1986) research by
showing that the children were capable of perceiving their
teacher's feedback. The results of this study add
especially to Livesley and Bromley's (1973) landmark study
on children's person perception. The students in this
study, used both peripheral, (e.g., appearance,
possessions, likes/dislikes) and central (e.g., personality
characteristics, motives, attitudes) statements in their
self-perceptions and interpretations.

In addition, these fourth-graders were able to handle
the high level of mental abstraction required by
perception. The high concentration of central statements
in students' interpersonal perceptions verifies Livesley
and Bromley's (1973) findings about children over the age
of eight being able to form perceptions that are not
dominated by a concrete, here-and-now situation.

As in Livesley and Bromley's study (1973), a couple of the children who thought the teacher disliked them gave more explanatory statements because they were possibly trying to justify their feelings. The results of this study add an interesting twist to Weinstein's studies (e.g., Brattesani, Weinstein, & Marshall, 1984; Marshall & Weinstein, 1986) about high-achieving students receiving more feedback from the teacher than lower-ability students. Results from the interview data suggest that higher-ability students *asked for more feedback, knew how to get more feedback,* and *negotiated differently* with the teacher, than the lower-ability students.

Sainsbury (1992) stressed that teachers should focus on understanding education from the perspective of their students. The present study provides a wealth of evidence on what kind of information the students selected from their classroom interactions to construct interpretations about their teacher's perceptions of them. The results of this study suggest that teachers may not be aware of how their students perceive and interpret their verbal, non-verbal, and written messages, or the amount of times they interact or do not interact with their students in school.

Also, the results indicated that students interpreted their teacher's verbal, non-verbal, and written feedback as evidence of the teacher's perceptions about them. These

results add to the lack of empirical evidence about *how* students interpret their experiences with the teacher in class (Darley & Fazio, 1980; Marshall, 1994; Wingfield & Harold, 1992). These findings may offer researchers a new perspective about how students learn over time in various educational contexts. The children in this study received more information about what it means to be a fourth-grade student in their class by interpreting both the explicit, as well as implicit, information that was located "between the lines" of their daily classroom interactions with the teacher (Kantor, Davies, Fernie & Murray, 1994).

Results about the students' interpretations of their teacher's perceptions add to the body of research (i.e., Yeager, Florianni & Green, 1995) that suggests that students' perspectives reveal that learning--academic, personal, or social--is fundamentally a matter of inquiry and interpretation of people's experiences in various settings. The results also support Bloome & Green's (1984) and Cochran-Smith's (1984) findings that through their social interactions, students and teachers construct classroom life and create opportunities for interpersonal learning.

Moreover, this study adds to the research evidence in the area of "meta-perceptions," in which research is very minimal with children. Felson (1981, 1992) suggested that

people use their self-perceptions to interpret what others think of them. The results of this study propose that the students based their interpretations on the type of feedback they had received from the teacher. The majority of the children were able to support their interpretations with detailed explanations, especially in areas in which they had much verbal and written information about their teachers' perceptions of them.

Lastly, the results of this study make a contribution to Wing's work (1995) on children's construction of identity through negotiation. This study suggests a possibility that children who negotiate more meaning from classroom events and interactions are able to form a richer framework around which they understand what they do in school and how teachers perceive them than those who do not.

As is often the case in qualitative research, data analysis reveals a number of variables that have bearing on the questions of interest. In this study students' self-perceptions and interpretations suggest a connection to several variables, including age, gender, developmental factors, academic ability, personality factors, and the context in which the defining processes were constructed.

Implications for Future Research

The study of students' perceptions is not new to the field of educational research. However, the construction of students' interpersonal knowledge, the students' interpretation of their teacher's perceptions about them, and the combination of methodology may be new to some researchers.

By examining the content and construction of students' interpersonal perceptions in naturalistic contexts, this study contributes to theories and practices of social-interaction, as well as theories of the social construction of children's interpersonal knowledge. However, the results of this study also generate questions that warrant further investigation.

One of the questions relates to the teachers' actual perceptions of their students. Since the focus of this study was on the students' interpersonal perceptions, the researcher did not examine the perceptions the two teachers held about their students. A more concentrated effort to obtain this information could have added to the researcher's understanding of possible incongruities existing between the teachers' and the students perceptions.

Another question suggested by the study concerns the role of developmental factors on students' interpretations.

Piaget (1952) suggested that a child who is advanced in understanding what others see is also advanced in comprehending another's thought. What about children who do not have an advanced understanding? How do children who are not as socially competent as other students interpret the teacher's perceptions about them in class? What about students who can negotiate meaning better than other students? Do they have a better understanding of what their teacher thinks of them in class than the students who cannot negotiate meaning? These are some of the questions the researcher is planning to further investigate.

Research findings (Dickman, 1963; Flapan, 1968) have indicated that age is a significant factor in the degree of realism of perceptions and degree of subtlety of cues children use in their perceptions. How about younger or older students? This kind of questions demands a lengthier study that could possibly show changes in children's interpersonal growth. Some girls in this study seemed to be more fluent in describing and explaining their perceptions and interpretations than some boys. Are there gender differences in children's interpersonal perceptions? Do girls and boys use different means to obtain information from the teacher about her perceptions of them? These questions warrant further investigation.

An individual's behavior is, in part, a reflection of how he or she perceives the environment around him or her (Ayers, 1969). How do at-risk students interpret their teacher's perceptions about them? How do children who are less socially competent and less independent interpret their teacher's perceptions about them? Research with an at-risk student population could help prevent future breakdowns in student-teacher relationships.

Implications for Educational Practice

This study was designed to describe and not prescribe. Every classroom is a living community with unique members. What happened in the two fourth-grade classes cannot be copied and expected to work in the same way in another setting. However, certain general principles can be derived from this situated study.

Students in any classroom need opportunities to interact with and receive meaningful feedback from their teachers. Teachers need to recognize that all students need opportunities to discuss their understanding of classroom events. Discussions that invite students' perspectives may help students' interpersonal learning. Mead (1934) stated that individuals become independent by their ability to *reflect upon, interpret,* and *judge* the world around them.

Hansford (1988) states that the teaching-learning process is built upon the assumption that the participants actively listen to each other. However, from our experiences in interpersonal communication and knowledge of the complexity of classrooms, we know that the extent to which students and teachers listen to each other varies according to the participants involved in the interaction, the discussion topic, the setting, and even how people feel on that particular day.

A great part of life's meaning comes from our relationships with others. A richer understanding of interpersonal communication in classroom settings may give teachers insights that would allow them to make their relationships with their students more effective. Better communication between students and teachers may aid students' interpersonal growth.

This study could help teachers to recognize that (a) information they share with their students about what they think of them in class may help create interpersonal understanding; (b) quality, personalized feedback--academic and non-academic--may help students understand their experiences with the teacher and help create improved relationships in the classroom. Teachers need to recognize that students' perceptions and interpretations of self,

influence the students' social, interpersonal, and academic growth.

Teachers must realize that their students may not be learning just what teachers think they are learning. Students enter the classroom with unique interests, abilities, and needs that influence the way the perceive and learn in social settings. The results of this study suggest that teachers need to become more aware of the influence their messages have upon their students. Teachers must become more sensitive to the interpretations their students construct and should monitor through personal interactions the meanings students assign to their classroom experiences.

Teachers can ask themselves "How can I let my students know what I think of them?" "What can I talk to them about?" "How can I tap into their perceptions and better understand them?" "How can I connect better, especially with students who have blocked communication with me?" Real sharing, opening up, exploring ideas together, listening to each other, and learning more about each other are some of the ways teachers can create learning communities in their classroom and help in the construction of student identities.

According to Pajares & Webb (1994, p.16):

Any learning community, if it is to flourish, must
have the courage to examine its practices and look for
ways to improve. When we listen to students, we come
to understand how they experience school. . . . That
then, is the challenge: to have the courage to listen
and when necessary, the willingness to change.

APPENDIX A
IRB APPROVAL

July 29, 1996

TO: Ms. Vicky Zygouris-Coe
           3002 NW 62nd AVE.
           Gainesville, FL 32653

FROM: C. Michael Levy, Chair,
           University of Florida Institutional
           Review Board

SUBJECT: Approval of Project #96.346
           Interpersonal perception: students' and teachers' mutual
           knowledge of each other in class
           Funding: Unfunded

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review
Board has recommended the approval of this project. The Board concluded that
participants will not be placed at more than minimal risk in this research.
Given your protocol, it is essential that you obtain signed documentation of
consent from each participant over 18 years of age, and from the parent or legal
guardian of each participant under 18 years of age. When it is feasible, you
should obtain signatures from both parents. Enclosed are the dated, IRB-approved
informed consents to be used when recruiting participants for this research.

If you wish to make any changes in this protocol, you must disclose your
plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact
on your project. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected
complications arising from the project which affect your participants.

If you have not completed this project by July 29, 1997, please telephone
our office (392-0433) and we will tell you how to obtain a renewal.

It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status
of this research.

CML/h2

cc: Dr. Weade

APPENDIX B
A SAMPLE OF FREE RESPONSES

1.   Mario (male)
Time 1

   She hates me because I don't like her.

Time 2

   She thinks I am good and bad. She thinks I am bad when
I eat in line and good when I am finished with math.

Time 3

   She thinks I am good when I walk in line quietly.

2.   Albert (male)
Time 1
I think my teacher thinks I am nice to other people and
smart. I think she even thinks I am funny and cool. I think
she thinks I am help ful.

Time 2
A trifeck student at sports !!

Time 3
kind and weird.

3.   Marcus (male)
Time 1
She hats me in she likes every bidy elsip (everybodyelse).
[Has drawn a picture of the teacher with a sad face on]

Time 2
dump because I'm not as smart as others. Good at science.

Time 3
She thinks I am sioupted because I am stoupied.

4.   Christina (female)
Time 1

   I think my teacher thinks I'm a good student. Sharing,
leting people know that is not how you do it but in a nice
way. She might think I'm a good listener. I'm always

185

staying on task. She might think I try to do my very best instead of playing like some students.

Time 2

I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am a good writer because she read a story that I made to the whole class. I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am good at computers because she tells me all the when I write on the computer.

Time 3

I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am good at math because I am in mixed facts which is really good and I think that I am quiet in line because my name is never chehed (checked) by the caboose.

5. Andreas (male)
Time 1

Ms. Naylor thinks I'm very wako, crazy, cool but weird, wako and funny, loud and if not I don't know.

Time 2

I think Ms. Naylor thinks that I am unike. (unique)

Time 3

I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am smart because she expects a lot from me.

6. Dale (female)
Time 1
I think my teacher thinks I'm smart at times and a hungry eater maby I don't really know what my teacher thinks of me but this is what I think she thinks. I think she thinks I'm a good soccer player. And a good environmental person because I'm in this mushroom club with my friend's. I think my teacher thinks I'm a good writer and I know that because she told me. I think she thinks I'm a neat reporter too I know she thinks so because teachers are suposed to like their student's. Well, I ran out of things to say to write again.

Time 2

I think Ms. Naylor thinks I'm a good writer when I write in
writers workshop. When I read aloud to the class in lague
arts in walk The Sky path. (a book they've been studying)
When I play soccer and make a goal. When I read in silent
reading.

Time 3
I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am cool because she doesn't
like me. Im smart at spelling. Thats all.

7.   Buddy (male)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor thinks I am cool, neet, bad, mesterees.

Time 2
I think Ms. Naylor think I m bad at line leeding.

Time 3
I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am neet because of this!! (has
drawn a skeleton.)

8.   Tara (female)
Time 1
I don't know what she thinks of me! /comments on
worksheets/
1.   super work   2.   write on the lines

Time 2
I don't know what Ms. Naylor thinks I am. I don't know what
she thinks of me.

Time 3
I don't know what Ms. Naylor thinks I am because she never
tells my what she thinks of me.

9.   Jimmie (male)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor thinks I am a nice jentelmana. Ms. Naylor thiks
I am good at math and nice. She thiks I am a nice and caful
student. I am glad I am in her class because she dose a lot
of cool things. She is vary nice. I hope you can by (be) my
5th grade tecaher.

Time 2
I think Ms. Naylor thinks Iam a good studen. She thinks I
am a nice person in school and at recess.

Time 3
good at douring (doing) my homework. playing sports and
working hard.

10. Jane
Time 1

A wird, smart cool kid that likes to try to be good and be the best I can. I think she likes me but I'm not sure I think she thinks I like work and art. I think she thinks I'm a good kid when I try.

Time 2

I think that she thinks I mostly try my best, but not always.

Time 3

a bad kid and I know she hates me and I hate her because she acts like it!

11. Alexa (female)
Time 1
I think Ms. Naylor Think I am good stand a good writer.

Time 2
I think she thinks am funny go at math when it is math time go at sports go at Writers workshop.

Time 3
A good and hard worker. The proble thats I can do any think of I put my mind to it! I think Ms. Naylor I am go at my multiplications.

12. Lizie (female)
Time 1
I don't know what she thinks I am!!!

Time 2
For the last time...

I don't know!!

Time 3
I don't know and I don't C A R E ! ! !

13. Kyle (male)
Time 1
She thinks I am smart. Also she thinks I am good at sports.

Time 2
She thinks I'm good at goalie also in class I'm nice to people. Sometimes she thinks I'm bad.

Time 3
She thinks I am good at sports and other things like math.

14. Roberta (female)
Time 1

I think my teacher likes me. When my teacher askes the class a qaustion she tries to give everybody a chance and I understand that but it seems like she takes forever to call me. I like Ms. Naylor she is kind and fair. When my mom picks me up she picks me up on her lunch break. My mom said I have to get out as soon as I can. I told Ms. Naylor that my mom has to get me as soon as she can and now I live on time.

Time 2

Ms. Naylor is a nice teacher. She probley thinks I a very Intelligent girl. Im not trying to be a gooddy to shoe but I think she likes me

Time 3

I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am not trying my best because I feel like I,m not reaching her goal for me. I also think she thinks I am a nice girl.

15. Jim (male)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor thinks I'am a human but I'am a allin from allin workshop. (Done and you won't know any more.)

Time 2
I think Miss Naylor thinks I am a human but I'am ALLIN

Time 3
Ms. Naylor thinks I am God because my powers people bow so you can now.

16. Gloria (female)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor think I'm almos always nice to other. I'm a good student. She think Im a pretty smart kid. If I try my best I can get a good score. I'm good at writing long stories.

I'm not the best at math but if I try my best I can go a
hole lot better. I need to encerege (encourage) my self
when I do stuff so I can do good on what I'm doing. She
thinks I love to read a lot because Im sometimes reading my
book because I like it so much.

Time 2
I'm a nice girl. Fun to be with. Friendly and generous.
Kind, helpful when I want to.

Time 3
I don't care what Ms. Naylor thinks of me.

17. Adam (male)
Time 1
She thinks I'm an obnoxious little brat. And a homely,
repulsive, ugly and bizare.

Time 2
mean because I sometimes do things I shouldn't.

Time 3
Smart because I know my addition.

18. Michelle (female)
Time 1
A smart kid who needs alot of understanding to work. thow I
am not that smart it still bose not make me a bad kid. I am
a nice kid with lovin parents.

Time 2
I think that she thinks that I am ok or smart. I I might
think I get in trudle to much. Like in the line or other
things.

Time 3
I dont know.

19. Pam (female)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor think that I am smart and enteligent she saids.
That I sweet and confidete and care and I am . Ms. Naylor
also helps me learn and understand things better. She is a
nice and caring. Ms. Naylor_ said that I'm a good soccer
player.

Time 2
Absent

Time 3
I am funny in what I do. And when I'm smart in math.

20. Greg (male)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor thinks I have very sloppy hand writing. She probily thinks I am also good at math. She might think I am <u>horrid</u> at Florida History. She might also think I am funny. She also thinks I talk a lot. I gues thats all.

Time 2
A good student in Math and Florida history. Because I answer a lot of questions. I think she thinks I am a very good coloror.

Time 3
I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am good at my math. Bacause I don't miss a lot of problems.

21. Melissa (female)
Time 1

Ms. Naylor thinks I am good looking and very nice to. She dose not like the way I dress. She doesnt like the things I like either. She wants me to be great. She doesnt like me.

Time 2

Well, I think that she thinks I am a very smart kid and I am really good at making friends. I also think that she thinks I am sometimes a not very nice kid but mostly I'm pretty good. She thinks that every kid is good noone to her is a bad kid cause I know that all kids are good inside and I think that she's a very really good teacher and I hope she never becames somthing else besides a teacher cause this school really needs her.

Time 3

(couldn't participate; was sent to time-out by teacher)

22. Patrick (male)
Time 1
I Don't no

Time 2
good at soccer

Time 3
I am good at math.

23. Heather (female)
Time 1

   I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am a good student, maby
bad at not talking in line. I'm not relly shure. Sorry.

Time 2

   I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am kind of a nusence
because it is hard for me to not talk in line and she has
to move me alot.

Time 3

   I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am a good student, pritty
good at math, a nousence to have to move to the back of the
line.

24. Samantha (female)
Time 1
I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am a pretty good student. I
listen. I think she injoys having me.

Time 2
good at soccer, I am nice to class mates, I am kind to
people.

Time 3
smart because I don't miss alot of problems on worksheets,
I am nice to classmates.

25. Christopher (male)
Time 1
A good hard worker and that I try to help as much as I can.
I'm grateful and I try to get people out of trouble.

Time 2
Good at math and writing.

Time 3
Good at math because I been working hard and I am on
dividion in the mad minutes. I need to speed up in math.

26. Jonathan (male)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor thinks I am a nice and kind person. She thinks the work I do is great. She thinks I'm a great person. She thinks I'm great in science and computers. She thinks my favorite thing is computers.

Time 2
...great when I am peaceful.

Time 3
...gtreat at science and math.

27. Tim (male)
Time 1
I don't know

Time 2
I don't know

Time 3
Ms. Naylor thinks I am a little crazy, weared.

28. Addy (female)
Time 1
Ms. Naylor thinks I am a nice freindly kid. With a lot of friends. a hard worker.

Time 2
I talk to much in line. I think she thinks I am a good student that follows derikshons.

Time 3
that I try my best at all my work.

29. Lynette (female)
Time 1
A nice person, and she sometimes gives me warnings. I have <u>not</u>, I repeat <u>not</u>, been sent to outer circle yet. When I work with another group, she always complements on it. She is a very nice person. And I personally know how she feels about me.

By Lynette

Time 2
A very pacific person. Pacific means I give good answers
when my teacher calls on me when she wants me to correct or
anser a question. Sometimes she thinks I am a good, nice,
sometimes gets warnings (checks) and I hardly ever let my
friend down and I always give them put-ups person.

Time 3
nice because I am nice to my friends I play with. I think
she also thinks I am special.

30. Richard (male)
Time 1
I think Ms. Naylor thiks I am nice.

Time 2
I think Ms. Naylor thinks I am good at soccer because I
[layed soccer for 3 yeras.

Time 3
I think Ms. Naylor thinks of me good at soccer.

APPENDIX C
A SAMPLE OF DOMAIN ANALYSIS

Figure 2

ABILITIES: Subject-related

- good at math because I get my highest grades in math (BM1.3)
- not good at American language (BM5.1)
- very bad at SA's because I don't get 1's, 2's, 3's (BM5.3)
- good at math because I can solve problems (BM6.1)
- sometimes good with solving science (BM6.1)
- good at math (BM6.2)
- good at science (BM6.2)
- good at social studies (BM6.2)
- good at reading (BM6.2)
- good in math because she'll pick me and I'll be right (BF7.1)
- bad in Florida History because she'll pick me and I'll be wrong (BF7.1)
- bad in literature groups (BF7.2)
- good at spelling (BF7.2)
- bad in math because I get most of the words right (BF7.3)
- a sort of a smart person at math (BM9.1)
- good at spelling (BM9.1)
- good at reading (BM9.1)
- bad in math because I can't get past subtraction (BM9.3)
- good at math (BM10.2)
- good at math (BM12.1)
- good at writing (BM12.1)
- good at addition (BM12.1)
- good at subtraction (BM12.1)
- good at multiplication (BM12.1)
- good at division (BM12.1)
- good at mixed facts (BM12.1)
- good at math (BM12.2)
- good at spelling (BM12.2)
- good at P.E. (BM12.2)
- good at math because I am good at addition, subtraction, multiplication and division (BM12.3)
- good in music because I listen (BF13.3)
- good in FL History because I raise my hand (BF13.3.)
- good at reading (BF15.2)
- a good writer because she always compliments me on my writing (BF15.3)
- very good at math (BM19.2)
- good at math (BF21.2)

- good at writing (BF21.2)
- a good reader (BF21.2)
- whiz-kid in math (BF22.2)
- should be a writer someday for children's books (BF23.2)
- a math champ (BF23.3)
- good writer in cursive (BF23.3)
- I have to work on my math a lot because I don't get finished in time (BM25.1)
- have to work a little harder because I don't get finished in time (BM25.1)
- have to work a little harder in math (BF26.2)
- need more help with spelling (BF29.2)
- need more help with math (BF29.3)
- good at cursive (BF29.3)
- great at recess (BF29.3)
- good at making up details when I have a book report (BF30.1)
- good at spelling (BF30.2)
- not that good at rounding in math (BF30.2)

(N=52)

ABILITIES: Sports

- good at soccer because when I am goalie only a few can pass me (BM5.3)
- good at football because I can catch passes and run for a touchdown (BM6.1)
- good at football (BM6.3)
- good at basketball (BM6.3)
- good at soccer (BM6.3)
- good at soccer (BM9.1)
- a good athlete (BM12.2)
- good at soccer (BM12.3)
- good at football (BM12.3)
- good at baseball (BM12.3)
- a very good soccer player (BM19.1)
- a sports person (BM19.2)
- very athletic in sports because I score goals (BF19.3)
- a good runner (BF21.2)
- a sports person (BF22.2)
- athletic (BF23.1)
- an athletic person (BF23.2)
- good at soccer (BF23.2)
- an athletic person (BF23.3)
- fast runner (BF23.3)
- tough kid at soccer (BF23.3)
- a very flexible person because I take karate and I stretch every day (BF23.3)

Figure 2--continued

- good in some sports, not wonderful (BF24.1)
- a good soccer player (BF25.3)
- a good football player (BF25.3)
- I don't really know if she thinks I am a good athlete (BF26.2)
- good at soccer (BF29.2)

(N=27)

ABILITIES: General

- a good student (BM2.2)
- an OK student (BM3.1)
- smart because I try my hardest in class (BM6.3)
- good at some things (BF7.2)
- a good student (BF8.1)
- smart because I do good on most of my assignments (BF8.3)
- dumb (BM9.3)
- smart (BF12.1)
- dumb (BF14.1)
- smart (BF15.1)
- smart (BF15.2)
- a good learner (BF16.1)
- very smart (BF16.2)
- smart (BF18.2)
- good at a lot (BF19.2)
- a good student (BF21.1.)
- a good student (BF21.3)
- a good student (BM25.1)
- dumb because I do a lot of work and I don't do it good (BF25.2)
- good or OK in school (BF26.1)
- smart (BF30.1)
- good student (BF30.3)

(N=22)

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

- nice in school (BM1.1)
- crazy (BM2.1)
- nice (BM2.2)
- good (BM2.2)
- weird (BM3.1)
- weird (BM3.2)
- weird (BM3.3)
- think negative a lot (BF8.2)
- nice because I am nice to most people (BF8.3)
- shy (BM9.1)
- a nice kid (BM10.1)

Figure 2--continued

- nice to be around (BM10.1)
- nice to be around (BM10.2)
- kind to be around (BM10.2)
- nice kid to be around (BM10.3)
- a kind person (BM11.1)
- silly (BF13.1)
- weird (BF13.1)
- nice (BF13.1)
- ugly (BF13.1)
- energetic (BF15.1)
- weird (BF15.1)
- funny when I make everyone laugh (BF15.2)
- caring (BF15.2)
- nice (BF15.2)
- friendly (BF15.2)
- outgoing (BF15.2)
- caring (BF15.3)
- trusting (BF16.2)
- very nice person (BF16.2)
- polite (BF16.2)
- sweet (BF17.1)
- funny (BF18.2)
- nice because she always gives me compliments (BF18.3)
- very pleasant (BM19.1)
- a nice kid (BF21.1)
- fair (BF21.2)
- a good sport (BF21.2)
- silly (BF21.3)
- friendly (BF21.3)
- a good person (BF22.1)
- good (BF22.2)
- nice (BF23.1)
- well-mannered person (BF23.1)
- bossy person (BF23.1)
- cruel when I am bad (BF23.1)
- crude or I hit or something (BF23.2)
- an OK kid (BF24.1)
- crazy because I act like it (BF25.2)
- a pretty good kid (BF26.1)
- very nice (BF26.2)
- sometimes good (BF26.3)
- sometimes kind (BF26.3)
- a good kid (BM27.1)
- a nuisance (BM28.1)
- cheerful because I am always smiling (BF29.1)
- responsible most of the time (BF29.1)
- good student because I listen (BF30.1)

(N=57)

Figure 2--continued

BEHAVIOR

- good in school (BM1.1)
- not bad in school (BM1.1)
- not as good in home as I am in school (BM1.1)
- not as good at home as I am in school (BM1.2)
- a trouble maker (BM2.1)
- a good kid (BM2.3)
- I talk too much (BM3.1)
- I don't talk in line, but I do (BM3.2)
- I don't pay attention (BF4.1)
- I'm always talking to my friends (BF4.1)
- I play around when it's time to work (BF4.1)
- a very bad child because I ran around the classroom all day(BF4.1)
- bad because I talk to my friends (BF4.3)
- bad because I don't listen to her (BF4.3)
- good when I pay attention (BF4.3)
- good in lunch (BF7.1)
- can be annoying but she doesn't really mind (BF8.2)
- a good student because I do what I am supposed to do (BF8.3)
- good because I hardly ever get in trouble (BF8.3)
- a person who talks too much in line (BM9.1)
- I get in so much trouble (BM9.3)
- good (BM12.1)
- she won't call me a nuisance (BM12.1)
- a listener (BF13.1)
- good (BF13.1)
- a nuisance (BF13.1)
- good (BF13.2)
- bad (BF13.2)
- good sometimes (BF13.2)
- bad sometimes (BF13.2)
- bad (BF14.1)
- talkative (BF15.1)
- a good listener (BF16.1)
- a good kid (BF16.1)
- a loud speaker when I talk (BF16.1)
- I am very bad because I am not always on task (BF17.2)
- I can be good when I feel like I would like to be (BF17.3)
- I am not on my best behavior all the time (BF17.3)
- bad when I walk in line with my friends (BF19.3)
- always follow directions (BF21.2)
- a good listener (BF21.2)
- always follow directions (BF21.3)
- get my work done and turn it in on time (BF22.1)
- sometimes I don't pay attention (BF26.1)
- bad when talking while she's teaching (BF26.3)

Figure 2--continued

- sometimes a bad student (BM27.1)
- bad when I don't turn in my homework (BF28.2)
- bad (BF28.2)
- I don't cheat on tests (BF30.1)

(N=49)

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS

- nice to my friends (BM1.2)
- I don't fight with my peers (BM1.2)
- I help kids out (BM2.3)
- nice to people (BF4.2)
- good at playing with little buddies (BM6.2)
- a nice friend to others (BM10.1)
- a good friend to others (BM10.3)
- a good helper because I volunteer a lot (BM11.2)
- kind because I always try to help out (BM11.3)
- nice to other people (BM12.1)
- I am William's friend and I like him (BF14.2)
- mean to her (BF14.2)
- bad and a bully to some people but I am not (BF14.3)
- caring about other people (BF15.1)
- caring because I always look out for other people (BF15.3)
- very nice to others (BF16.2)
- a good classmate to my friends (BF17.2)
- nice to my classmates (BF17.2)
- I respect her most of the time (BF17.2)
- a good friend to my friends (BF21.1)
- good to my friends (BF21.2)
- nice to people (BF21.2)
- nice to others (BF21.3)
- I care about people (BF21.3)
- cruel when I am bad (BF23.1)
- popular person because I have a lot of friends (BF23.3)
- a experienced big buddy (BF24.2)
- respectful (BF24.2)
- I help people (BF26.3)
- I give other people a chance (BF26.3)
- I help others (BF29.2)
- I have friends (BF29.3)
- I help her during after school with whatever she needs help with (BF30.3)

(N=33)

Figure 2--continued

EFFORT

- I try my best on class work (BM1.2)
- somebody who does not try (BF4.2)
- I try my hardest in math (BM6.3)
- a hard worker (BF8.1)
- a hard working person that tries my best (BM11.2)
- I try very hard in math (BF16.2)
- I try very hard in spelling (BF16.2)
- a hard worker when I work on something (BF16.2)
- a hard worker (BF22.1)

(N=9)

FAVORITE THINGS

- loving writing (BF15.1)
- liking reading (BF15.2)
- like science (BM24.1)
- like to read (BM24.1)
- interested in reading (BM24.2)

(N=5)

TEACHER LIKES ME/DISLIKES ME

- she likes me (BF26.1)
- hates me because I am bad (BF27.2)

(N=2)

DON'T KNOW

- I don't know (BM27.2)

(N=1)

OTHER

- nothing because I am nothing (BF22.3)

(N=2)

PERSONAL INFORMATION

- watch too many movies that have a lot of killing in them (BM19.1)

(N=1)

Figure 2--continued

APPENDIX D
SAMPLES OF TAXONOMIC ANALYSIS

Table D-1

Taxonomic Analysis: I Think I Am... Class A

ABILITY (N=137)	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=80)
	• math (n=24)
	• good (n=24)
	• not so good (n=5/24)
	• writing (n=10)
	• reading (n=8)
	• not good (n=2/8)
	• spelling (n=7)
	• not do good (n=1/7)
	• art (n=6)
	• cursive (n=4)
	• not so good (n=1/4)
	• Fl History (n=3)
	• not so good (n=1/3)
	• music (n=3)
	• acting (n=1)
	• French (n=1)
	• general (n=1)
	• language arts (n=1)
	• story telling (n=1)
	SPORTS (n=37)
	• soccer (n=14)
	• sports (n=5)
	• basketball (n=3)
	• running (n=3)
	• baseball (n=1)
	• football (n=1)
	• gymnastics (n=2)
	• hockey (n=2)

Table D-1—continued

PERSONAL INFORMATION (N=86)	
GENERAL (n=20)	• athletic (n=1)
	• climbing (n=1)
	• skateboarding (n=1)
	• swimming (n=1)
	• smart (n=9)
	• good in school (n=5)
	• intelligent (n=3)
	• stupid (n=2)
	• dumb (n=1)
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (n=33)	• siblings (n=9)
	• age (n=6)
	• name (n=6)
	• birthday (n=4)
	• parents (n=3)
	• birth order (n=2)
	• cultural heritage (n=1)
	• family (n=1)
PHYSICAL APPEARANCE (n=24)	• general (n=7)
	• eye color (n=6)
	• hair color (n=6)
	• height (n=2)
	• fat (n=1)
	• strong (n=1)
	• ugly (n=1)
SCHOOL-RELATED (n=10)	• bored (n=2)
	• classwork (n=2)
	• abilities (n=1)
	• grades (n=1)
	• memory (n=1)

Table D-1--continued

• school performance (n=1)
• teacher (n=1)
• writing pace (n=1)
EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES (n=9)
• languages (n=4)
• sports (n=4)
• acrobatics (n=1)
• gymnastics (n=1)
• soccer (n=1)
• Music (n=1)
• play guitar (n=1)
POSSESSIONS (n=5)
• pets (n=1)
OTHER (n=3)
• I like myself (n=3)
HOBBIES (n=2)
• art (n=2)
• cooking (n=1)
SPECIFIC (n=28)
• fun (n=4)
• funny (n=4)
• happy (n=4)
• determined (n=2)
• energetic (n=2)
• crazy (n=1)
• friendly (n=1)
• generous (n=1)
• helpful (n=1)
• hopeful (n=1)
• independent (n=1)
• kind (n=1)
• lazy (n=1)
• not sensitive (n=1)

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS (N=51)

Table D-1--continued

LIKES (N=41)	
	• playful (n=1)
	• speak my mind (n=1)
	• thinkable (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=17)
	• nice (n=10)
	• not cool (n=6)
	• good person (n=1)
	• weird (n=1)
	• good sport (n=1)
	• great kid (n=1)
	• special (n=1)
	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=29)
	• writing (n=8)
	• math (n=6)
	• games (n=2)
	• general (n=2)
	• don't like math trivia (n=1)
	• hate math (n=1)
	• art (n=3)
	• music (n=2)
	• p.e. (n=2)
	• computers (n=1)
	• English (I don't like) (n=1)
	• enrichment (n=1)
	• FL history (don't like) (n=1)
	• geography (n=1)
	• literature groups (don't like) (n=1)
	• recess (n=1)
	• spelling (n=1)
	SCHOOL-RELATED (n=19)
	• sports (n=15)
	• soccer (n=7)
	• football (n=4)

Table D-1--continued

	• general (n=2)
	• swimming (n=1)
	• track (n=1)
	• general (n=3)
	• playing (n=1)
	HOBBIES (n=5)
	• board games (n=1)
	• look at sharks, whales (n=1)
	• reading books (n=3)
	• general (n=1)
	• mystery stories (n=1)
	• science fiction (n=1)
	OTHER (n=1)
	• going home (n=1)
FAVORITE THINGS (N=33)	**SUBJECTS (n=24)**
	• art (n=5)
	• writing (n=5)
	• general (n=4)
	• at the computer (n=1)
	• math (n=4)
	• general (n=3)
	• dice games (n=1)
	• science (n=3)
	• p.e. (n=2)
	• book reports (n=1)
	• computers (n=1)
	• language arts (n=1)
	• music (n=1)
	• spelling (n=1)
	SPORTS (n=9)
	• general (n=4)
	• soccer (n=2)
	• kick and jump (n=1)

Table D-1--continued

FRIENDS (N=16)	
	• gymnastics (n=1)
	• skateboarding (n=1)
	FRIENDS-RELATED (n=16)
	• have friends (n=5)
	• best friend's name (n=3)
	• my friends are (n=3)
	• best friends are (n=2)
	• best friend sits at (n=1)
	• cool with friends (n=1)
	• don't have lots of friends (n=1)
DISLIKES (N=12)	**SUBJECT-RELATED (n=9)**
	• math (n=2)
	• general (n=1)
	• math trivia (n=1)
	• English (n=1)
	• Fl history (n=1)
	• literature groups (n=1)
	• pronouncing (n=1)
	• punctuation (n=1)
	• reading out loud (n=1)
	• spelling (n=1)
	OTHER (n=3)
	• coming to school (n=1)
	• computers (n=1)
	• leaving enrichment (n=1)
RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS (N=10)	**BEING FRIENDS WITH OTHERS (n=6)**
	• a good friend (n=3)
	• caring to friends (n=1)
	• make friends easily (n=1)
	• very nice to friends (n=1)
	TREATING OTHERS (n=3)
	• get along (n=1)
	• hard time when in a fight (n=1)

Table D-1—continued

BEHAVIOR (N=7)	
	• hard to tell on people (n=1)
	PLAYING WITH OTHERS (n=1)
	• play well with others (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=6)
	• good (n=4)
	• bad (n=1)
	• behave (n=1)
	SPECIFIC (n=1)
	• talk in line (n=1)

Table D-2

Taxonomic Analysis: I Think I Am... Class B

ABILITY (N=193)	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=85)
	• math (n=24)
	• not so good (n=4/24)
	• reading (n=12)
	• writing (n=9)
	• art (n=8)
	• handwriting (n=7)
	• not so good (n=2/7)
	• spelling (n=7)
	• computers (n=4)
	• p.e. (n=4)
	• music (n=3)
	• F1 history (n=2)
	• science (n=2)
	• homework (n=1)
	• literature groups: not so good (n=1)
	• telling stories (n=1)
	SPORTS (n=78)
	• soccer (n=22)
	• not so good (n=1/22)
	• basketball (n=13)
	• football (n=13)
	• not so good (n=1/13)
	• good athlete (n=11)
	• runner (n=9)
	• tennis (n=3)
	• bike rider (n=1)
	• karate (n=1)
	• playing tag (n=1)

Table D-2--continued

	• roller blading (n=1)
	• softball (n=1)
	• swimmer (n=1)
	• wall ball (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=30)
	• good student (n=11)
	• smart (n=9)
	• not smart (n=1/9)
	• dumb (n=2)
	• making stuff (n=2)
	• stupid (n=2)
	• above average expected behavior (n=1)
	• coming up with good ideas (n=1)
	• retarded (n=1)
	• talented (n=1)
LIKES (N=89)	**SUBJECT-RELATED (n=47)**
	• science (n=10)
	• math (n=9)
	• general (n=5)
	• add (n=1)
	• do times tables (n=1)
	• mad minutes (n=1)
	• subtract (n=1)
	• writer's workshop (n=6)
	• general (n=3)
	• writing stories (n=2)
	• writing (n=1)
	• music (n=5)
	• general (n=1)
	• dance (n=1)
	• drums (n=1)
	• singing (n=1)
	• p.e. (n=5)

Table D-2--continued

	• reading (n=5)
	• art (n=4)
	• computer (n=2)
	• geography (n=1)
	SCHOOL-RELATED (m=33)
	• recess (n=10)
	• games (n=6)
	• general (n=2)
	• run laps (n=2)
	• tag (n=1)
	• 4 square (n=1)
	• play (n=4)
	• general (n=4)
	• rocket events (n=3)
	• classroom jobs (n=2)
	• free time (n=1)
	• fourth grade (n=1)
	• lunch (n=1)
	• teacher (n=1)
	HOBBIES (n=7)
	• collect football cards (n=1)
	• make rocks (n=1)
	• pretend (n=1)
	• ride bike (n=1)
	• roller blade (n=1)
	• talk to myself (n=1)
	• weapons (n=1)
	OTHER (n=2)
	• animals (n=2)
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS (N=52)	SPECIFIC (n=36)
	• funny (n=6)
	• responsible (n=4)

Table D-2--continued

	• good friend (n=3)
	• honest (n=3)
	• kind (n=3)
	• mean (n=2)
	• playful (n=2)
	• caring (n=1)
	• cheerful (n=1)
	• crazy (n=1)
	• creative (n=1)
	• friendly (n=1)
	• fun (n=1)
	• good sport (n=1)
	• helpful (n=1)
	• not mean (n=1)
	• obedient (n=1)
	• polite (n=1)
	• respectable (n=1)
	• wild (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=26)
	• nice (n=9)
	• weird (n=7)
	• good person (n=2)
	• bad (n=1)
	• butthead (n=1)
	• cool (n=1)
	• getting better (n=1)
	• interesting (n=1)
	• like people (n=1)
	• neat (n=1)
	• nuthead (n=1)
RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS (N=28)	**TREATING OTHERS (N=20)**
	• nice (n=10)

Table D-2--continued

	• being fair (n=2)
	• respect friends (n=2)
	• good classmate (n=1)
	• helping in accidents (n=1)
	• kind (n=1)
	• not get mad (n=1)
	• respect the teacher (n=1)
	• don't get along with brother and sister (n=1)
	WORKING WITH OTHERS (n=3)
	• help others (n=1)
	• help teacher (n=1)
	• work with others (n=1)
	BEING FRIENDS WITH OTHERS (n=5)
	• good friend (n=3)
	• friendly (n=1)
	• make friends laugh (n=1)
PERSONAL INFORMATION (N=24)	**OTHER (n=7)**
	• imagination (n=2)
	• skills (n=2)
	• acting (n=1)
	• fighting (n=1)
	• effort (n=1)
	• wishes (n=1)
	• pet loving (n=1)
	PHYSICAL APPEARANCE (n=6)
	• general (n=6)
	INTERESTS (n=4)
	• basketball player (n=1)
	• children's writer (n=1)
	• division/math (n=1)
	• pet trainer (n=1)
	DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (n=3)
	• name (n=2)

Table D-2--continued

	• age (n=1)
	EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES (n=2)
	• general (n=1)
	• sports (n=1)
	SCHOOL-RELATED (n=2)
	• school (n=2)
	• is fun (n=1)
	• am on X tables (n=1)
FAVORITE THINGS (N=20)	**SUBJECTS (n=11)**
	• art (n=5)
	• p.e. (n=2)
	• science (n=2)
	• math (n=1)
	• writing (n=1)
	OTHER (n=9)
	• comic stores (n=1)
	• D.A.R.E. (n=1)
	• day of the week (n=1)
	• fourth grade (n=1)
	• gun stores (n=1)
	• having own desk (n=1)
	• attractions/cities (n=1)
	• play with best friend (n=1)
	• read (n=1)
FRIENDS (N=14)	**FRIEND-RELATED (n=14)**
	• having many friends (n=4)
	• best friend (n=2)
	• best friend's name (n=2)
	• liking X as a friend (n=2)
	• not having many friends (n=1)
	• get along with friends (n=1)
	• make friends easily (n=1)
	• play football with friends (n=1)

Table D-2--continued

DISLIKES (N=9)	SUBJECTS (n=6)
	• Fl history (n=1)
	• handwriting (n=1)
	• math (n=1)
	• music (n=1)
	• spelling (n=1)
	• writing papers (n=1)
	OTHER (n=2)
	• school (n=1)
	• wearing dresses (n=1)
BEHAVIOR (N=6)	SPECIFIC (n=4)
	• good at following directions (n=1)
	• good at listening (n=1)
	• pay attention (n=1)
	• quiet (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=2)
	• bad (n=1)
EFFORT (N=6)	GENERAL (n=3)
	• try hard (n=2)
	• school (n=1)
	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=3)
	• math (n=2)
	• handwriting (n=1)

Table D-3

Taxonomic Analysis: I Think Ms. Naylor Thinks I Am...   Class A

ABILITY (N=74)	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=38)
	• math (n=15)
	• writing (n=8)
	• work (n=4)
	• science (n=3)
	• art (n=2)
	• computers (n=2)
	• Fl history (n=2)
	• reading (n=2)
	• handwriting (n=1)
	• homework (n=1)
	• oral reports/presentations (n=1)
	• spelling (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=22)
	• smart (n=11)
	• good (n=7)
	• intelligent (n=2)
	SPORTS-RELATED (n=13)
	• soccer (n=8)
	• good (n=5)
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS (N=69)	GENERAL (n=34)
	• nice (n=13)
	• cool (n=5)
	• weird (n=4)
	• crazy/wako (n=2)
	• neat (n=2)
	• special (n=2)
	• bad (n=1)
	• bizarre (n=1)

Table D-3--continued

	• good (n=1)
	• great (n=1)
	• not nice (n=1)
	• unique (n=1)
	SPECIFIC (n=25)
	• funny (n=5)
	• kind (n=3)
	• friendly (n=2)
	• helpful (n=2)
	• advising (n=1)
	• careful (n=1)
	• confident (n=1)
	• determined (n=1)
	• fun (n=1)
	• generous (n=1)
	• loud (n=1)
	• mean (n=1)
	• mysterious (n=1)
	• nuisance (n=1)
	• sharing (n=1)
	• talk a lot (n=1)
RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS (N=15)	**TREATING OTHERS (n=7)**
	• nice to others (n=5)
	• kind to people (n=1)
	• care for others (n=1)
	BEING FRIENDS WITH OTHERS (n=7)
	• really good at making friends (n=1)
	• get people out of trouble (n=1)
	• nice to friends I play with (n=1)
	• help friends (n=1)
	• with lots of friends (n=1)
	• don't let friends down (n=1)
	• give my friends put-ups (n=1)

Table D-3--continued

	WORKING WITH OTHERS (n=1)
	• work well in groups (n=1)
DON'T KNOW (N=14)	**DON'T KNOW (n=14)**
EFFORT (N=13)	**GENERAL (N=13)**
	• trying my best (n=7)
	• hard worker (n=5)
	• not trying my best (n=1)
BEHAVIOR (N=11)	**GENERAL (n=8)**
	• bad (n=5)
	• good (n=3)
	SPECIFIC (n=3)
	• get in trouble in line (n=2)
	• talk too much in line (n=1)
TEACHER LIKES ME/DISLIKES ME (N=11)	**GENERAL (n=9)**
	• hates me (n=3)
	• likes me (n=3)
	• doesn't like me (n=1)
	• enjoys having me (n=1)
	SPECIFIC (n=2)
	• doesn't like me (n=1)
	• doesn't like the way I dress (n=1)
OTHER (N=5)	**GENERAL (n=4)**
	• a human (n=2)
	• an alien (n=1)
	• God (n=1)
	SPECIFIC (n=1)
	• a good environment person (n=1)
FAVORITE THINGS (N=2)	**SPECIFIC (n=2)**
	• computers (n=1)
	• love to read a lot (n=1)
PERSONAL INFORMATION (N=1)	**PHYSICAL APPEARANCE (N=1)**
	• good looking (n=1)

Table D-4

Taxonomic Analysis: I Think Mrs. Cleary Thinks I Am... Class B

ABILITY (N=102)	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=52)
	• math (n=24)
	• not so good (n=5/24)
	• spelling (n=5)
	• need help (n=1/5)
	• reading (n=4)
	• writing (n=4)
	• science (n=3)
	• Fl history (n=2)
	• bad (n=1/2)
	• handwriting (n=2)
	• bad at literature groups (n=1)
	• bad at SA's (n=1)
	• music (n=1)
	• not getting finished on time (n=1)
	• not good at American language (n=1)
	• p.e. (n=1)
	• recess (n=1)
	SPORTS (n=28)
	• athletic/good athlete ((n=10)
	• don't know (n=1)
	• soccer (n=9)
	• football (n=4)
	• runner (n=2)
	• basketball (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=22)
	• a good student (n=11)
	• smart (n=8)
	• dumb (n=3)

Table D-4--continued

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS (N=58)	SPECIFIC (n=30)
	• kind (n=3)
	• caring (n=2)
	• crazy (n=2)
	• friendly (n=2)
	• funny (n=2)
	• silly (n=2)
	• bossy (n=1)
	• cheerful (n=1)
	• crude (n=1)
	• cruel (n=1)
	• energetic (n=1)
	• fair (n=1)
	• kind (n=1)
	• nuisance (n=1)
	• outgoing (n=1)
	• pleasant (n=1)
	• polite (n=1)
	• responsible (n=1)
	• shy (n=1)
	• sweet (n=1)
	• think negative (n=1)
	• trusting (n=1)
	• ugly (n=1)
	• well-manered (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=28)
	• nice (n=14)
	• good (n=8)
	• weird (n=5)
	• OK kid (n=1)
BEHAVIOR (N=49)	GENERAL (n=28)
	• bad in school (n=14)
	• good in school (n=14)

Table D-4--continued

	SPECIFIC (n=21)
	• talk too much (n=4)
	• don't pay attention (n=2)
	• follow directions (n=2)
	• listener (n=2)
	• annoying (n=1)
	• don't cheat on test (n=1)
	• don't talk in line (n=1)
	• get in trouble (n=1)
	• get work done on time (n=1)
	• loud speaker (n=1)
	• not a nuisance (n=1)
	• not in best behavior (n=1)
	• nuisance (n=1)
	• play around (n=1)
	• trouble maker (n=1)
RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS (N=33)	BEING FRIENDS WITH OTHERS (n=16)
	• nice to people (n=5)
	• nice to friends (n=3)
	• a good friend (n=3)
	• have lots of friends (n=2)
	• a good classmate (n=1)
	• bad/bully (n=1)
	• friend of X (n=1)
	TREATING OTHERS (n=14)
	• caring (n=3)
	• help people (n=3)
	• don't fight (n=1)
	• give people a chance (n=1)
	• help people (n=1)
	• help the teacher (n=1)
	• kind (n=1)
	• mean to the teacher (n=1)

Table D-4--continued

	• respect teacher (n=1)
	• respectful (n=1)
	WORKING WITH OTHERS (n=3)
	• big buddy (n=1)
	• a good helper (n=1)
	• good at playing with little buddies (n=1)
EFFORT (N=8)	**GENERAL (n=5)**
	• hard worker (n=5)
	SUBJECT-RELATED (n=3)
	• try hard in math (n=2)
	• try hard in spelling (n=1)
FAVORITE THINGS (N=5)	**SUBJECTS (n=5)**
	• reading (n=3)
	• science (n=1)
	• writing (n=1)
OTHER (N=2)	**GENERAL (n=2)**
	• nothing (n=1)
TEACHER LIKES ME/DISLIKES ME (N=2)	**GENERAL (n=2)**
	• she hates me (n=1)
	• she likes me (n=1)
DON'T KNOW (N=1)	**DON'T KNOW (N=1)**
PERSONAL INFORMATION (N=1)	• watch too many movies (n=1)

Table D-5

Taxonomic Analysis: I Would Like To Know What Ms. Naylor Thinks Of Me When I...
Class A

SUBJECT-RELATED (N=87)	MATH (n=33)
	• do math (n=12)
	• get correct answer (n=4)
	• bad? (n=2)
	• get it wrong (n=3)
	• good? (n=2)
	• try my best (n=2)
	• be in a different book in math (n=1)
	• be in a special group? (n=1)
	• do it good (n=1)
	• learn more about X tables (n=1)
	• mad minutes (n=1)
	• mess up on a test (n=1)
	• try my best at subtraction (n=1)
	• try my bestand get it wrong (n=1)
	OTHER (n=19)
	• do reading (n=2)
	• play at recess (n=2)
	• play on computers (n=2)
	• loose a game (n=1)
	• read aloud to class (n=2)
	• share a report in class (n=2)
	• do F1 History (n=1)
	• do projects (n=1)
	• do work (n=1)
	• good job (n=1)
	• go to art (n=1)
	• do well? (n=1)

Table D-5--continued

	• go to music (n=1)
	• run laps (n=1)
	HOMEWORK (n=10)
	• do homework (n=6)
	• answer a question wrong (n=1)
	• what she likes (n=1)
	• write cursive (n=1)
	• do it in class (n=1)
	WRITING (n=9)
	• do writing (n=2)
	• good writer? (n=2)
	• don't write in cursive (n=2)
	• stories good? (n=1)
	• write a story (n=1)
	• write a story she doesn't understand (n=1)
	SPELLING (n=8)
	• do spelling (n=2)
	• good? (n=2)
	• get a question (n=1)
	• miss a hard word (n=1)
	• miss a lot on my tests (n=1)
	• spelling tests (n=1)
	SCIENCE (n=4)
	• do science (n=2)
	• get a question (n=1)
	• make a catapult in science lab (n=1)
	WORK (n=2)
	• don't do a good job (n=1)
	• use sloppy handwriting (n=1)
BEHAVIOR (N=63)	**SPECIFIC (n=54)**
	• talk in line (n=12)
	• do what I'm supposed to do (n=4)
	• don't talk in line (n=4)

Table D-5—continued

• talk to my friends (n=4)
• separate me & my friends for talking in line (n=3)
• do what I'm supposed to do (n=2)
• don't listen (n=2)
• don't turn in homework (n=2)
• am late (n=1)
• being called on to read and not knowing where you are (n=1)
• call out (n=1)
• cry (n=1)
• do homework (n=1)
• don't participate in class (n=1)
• don't raise your hand to answer a question (n=1)
• don't talk in class (n=1)
• don't turn in math work (n=1)
• draw when not supposed to (n=1)
• eat in class (n=1)
• follow directions (n=1)
• get sent to penalty box (n=1)
• go crazy at recess (n=1)
• go to outer circle (n=1)
• listen (n=1)
• participate in class (n=1)
• read a book too long before challenge (n=1)
• talk to my friends in line (n=1)
• talk out of turn (n=1)
• work quietly (n=1)
GENERAL (n=8)
• am bad (n=4)
• good (n=3)

Table D-5--continued

ABILITY (N=34)	• being weird (n=1)
	SPORTS (n=22)
	• play soccer (n=11)
	• make a goal (n=2)
	• kick the ball (n=1)
	• play with friends (n=1)
	• play sports (n=1)
	• good at baseball (n=1)
	• good at football (n=1)
	GENERAL (n=12)
	• good enough? (n=5)
	• smart (n=2)
	• stupid (n=2)
	• am I where I am supposed to be? (n=1)
	• bad? (n=1)
	• get a good score (n=1)
GENERAL INFORMATION (N=27)	**SCHOOOL-RELATED (n=27)**
	• answer a question (n=2)
	• get a question wrong (n=2)
	• a good listener (n=1)
	• a good student (n=1)
	• absent (n=1)
	• am happy (n=1)
	• ask questions I should already know (n=1)
	• do nothing (n=1)
	• do something she likes me to do (n=1)
	• do stuff at recess (n=1)
	• do things (n=1)
	• do what others have not done (n=1)
	• give the wrong answer (n=1)
	• go outside (n=1)
	• go to guidance counselor for help? (n=1)

Table D-5--continued

	have to borrow money from her for lunch (n=1)
	• participate (n=1)
	• play around (n=1)
	• play at computers (n=1)
	• play on playground (n=1)
	• present a topic (n=1)
	• read a book (n=1)
	• read more (n=1)
	• wack my head on my desk (n=1)
RESPONSIBILITIES (N=19)	HOMEWORK (n=16)
	• don't turn it in (n=5)
	• turn it in on time (n=4)
	• don't do it (n=2)
	• turn in my paper (n=2)
	• turn it late (n=2)
	• sloppy (n=1)
	OTHER (n=3)
	• come to school late (n=2)
	• line leader (n=1)
RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS (N=18)	TREATING OTHERS (n=11)
	• be nice (n=2)
	• fighting (n=2)
	• get in fight with friends at school (n=1)
	• give the teacher a put-up or a present (n=1)
	• helpful (n=1)
	• helping her with the grading (n=1)
	• hit someone accidentally but she thinks I hit on purpose (n=1)
	• make friends (n=1)
	• say mean things to someone (n=1)
	WORKING WITH OTHERS (n=2)

Table D-5--continued

	• don't cooperate (n=1)
	• share (n=1)
	PLAYING WITH OTHERS (n=3)
	• play at the field with friends (n=1)
	• play soccer with friends (n=1)
	• play when somebody else is talking (n=1)
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS (N=4)	**SPECIFIC (n=4)**
	• kind? (n=2)
	• not respectful? (n=1)
	• respectful? (n=1)

Table D-6

Taxonomic Analysis: I Would Like To Know What Mrs. Cleary Thinks Of Me When I....
Class B

BEHAVIOR-RELATED (N=98)	SPECIFIC (n=76)
	• talk in line (n=14)
	• do something good (n=7)
	• don't listen (n=4)
	• raise my hand to answer a question (n=3)
	• talk when I shouldn't be talking (n=3)
	• act silly (n=2)
	• am responsible in class (n=2)
	• do what I am supposed to do (n=2)
	• don't use a loud speaking voice (n=2)
	• know answers but don't raise my hand (n=2)
	• listen (n=2)
	• not talking in line (n=2)
	• play around in class (n=2)
	• play rough (n=2)
	• am bad during class time (n=1)
	• am in time out (n=1)
	• am responsible outdoors (n=1)
	• ask her a question (n=1)
	• call people names (n=1)
	• dance around (n=1)
	• do something bad like don't answer a problem (n=1)
	• don't pay attention (n=1)
	• don't raise my hand a lot (n=1)
	• don't raise my hand when I know the answer (n=1)
	• eat lunch (n=1)

Table D-6--continued

• get in trouble (n=1)
• go to the bathroom a lot of times in the day (n=1)
• half way asleep in class (n=1)
• have to stay in from recess (n=1)
• play around in line (n=1)
• play silly at recess (n=1)
• put stickers on my desk (n=1)
• raise my hand to talk (n=1)
• take off my shoes in class (n=1)
• run around the room and act crazy (n=1)
• talk back to her (n=1)
• talk too much (n=1)
• talk too much in boring subjects (n=1)
• try to beat someone to the lunch line (n=1)
• say "I don't want to read out loud" and she asks me to read (n=1)
• walk around (n=1)
• walk quietly in line (n=1)
GENERAL (n=22)
• am bad during class (n=1)
• do something good (n=7)
• do everything good (n=1)
• do something bad (n=1)
• do something funny (n=1)
• do something right (n=1)
• do something sad (n=1)
• do something wrong (n=1)
• play nice (n=1)
• play weird (n=1)
• show off (n=1)
• we're coming back from art (n=1)
• we're coming back from music (n=1)

Table D-6--continued

SUBJECT-RELATED (N=42)	
	• we're coming back from p.e. (n=1)
	• we're coming back from science (n=1)
	• we're coming back from p.e. (n=1)
OTHER (n=20)	
	• do oral presentations/reports (n=7)
	• do bad at something (n=2)
	• participate (n=2)
	• answer a question (n=1)
	• do FL History (n=1)
	• do good at something (n=1)
	• do science (n=1)
	• don't participate (n=1)
	• grades (n=1)
	• voice loud enough when I read? (n=1)
	• write an experiment for something (n=1)
	• writer's workshop (n=1)
MATH (n=8)	
	• do math (n=2)
	• doing a math problem on the board (n=1)
	• give wrong answer (n=1)
	• good at math? (n=1)
	• make 100 on my math test (n=1)
	• miss a question (n=1)
	• pass a mad minute test (n=1)
TESTS (n=5)	
	• do good on a test (n=2)
	• do bad on a test (n=1)
	• get a 100 on it (n=1)
	• make some mistakes on it (n=1)
HOMEWORK (n=4)	
	• do it right (n=1)
	• do it wrong (n=1)
	• finish it (n=1)

Table D-6--continued

	• have a bad grade in it (n=1)
	READING (n=3)
	• read a lot? (n=1)
	• read bad? (n=1)
	• read good? (n=1)
	HANDWRITING (n=2)
	• write bad cursive (n=1)
	• forget to write in cursive (n=1)
RESPONSIBILITIES (N=37)	**HOMEWORK (n=25)**
	• don't turn it in (n=7)
	• turn it in (n=4)
	• turn it in late (n=4)
	• give a paper in to her (n=1)
	• forget it (n=2)
	• forget to do homework (n=2)
	• complete all homework (n=1)
	• do it (n=1)
	• don't do it (n=1)
	• forget to put my name on it (n=1)
	• turn in math (n=1)
	OTHER (n=6)
	• forget something (n=2)
	• late for school (n=2)
	• don't come to school for a couple of days (n=1)
	• don't take full responsibility into my actions (n=1)
	WORK (n=6)
	• be responsible on my work (n=1)
	• don't finish it (n=1)
	• don't turn in a report on time (n=1)
	• don't turn in things on time (n=1)
	• finish my stuff in class (n=1)
	• hand things in when I'm supposed to (n=1)

Table D-6--continued

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS (N=21)	TREATING OTHERS (n=16)
	• help someone when they are hurt (n=2)
	• accidentally criticize people (n=1)
	• am in a fight with a friend (n=1)
	• am really mad at someone (n=1)
	• do something nice to someone else (n=1)
	• hit (n=1)
	• how I relate to other people (n=1)
	• kick (n=1)
	• my friends bother me (n=1)
	• nice by just talking with others (n=1)
	• not respecting others (n=1)
	• rude to a substitute (n=1)
	WORKING WITH OTHERS (n=4)
	• help others (n=2)
	• bring in stuff to help the class (n=1)
	• friendly to others (n=1)
	• help others do something (n=1)
	• help someone in a math problem (n=1)
	• helping others with their work (n=1)
	PLAYING WITH OTHERS (n=1)
	• hanging out with my friends (n=1)
ABILITY (N=9)	GENERAL (n=5)
	• be intelligent (n=1)
	• be smart (n=1)
	• construct various things, like Legos (n=1)
	• do well in school (n=1)
	• make straight A's on my report card (n=1)
	SPORTS (n=4)
	• being a good athlete (n=2)
	• play soccer and score a goal (n=1)
	• win a special medal in soccer (n=1)

Table D-6--continued

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS (N=6)	SPECIFIC (n=5)
	• be polite (n=1)
	• cry when get hurt (n=1)
	• cry when worried (n=1)
	• energetic (n=1)
	• try to be funny (n=1)
	GENERAL ((n=1)
	• be a good sport (n=1)
EFFORT (N=4)	GENERAL (n=4)
	• do my best in class (n=2)
	• try my best (n=1)
	• try my hardest (n=1)
OTHER (N=3)	GENERAL (n=3)
	• met my teacher the first few days of school (n=1)
	• want to move my desk (n=1)
	• what she wants so I can choose to do it or not (n=1)
DON'T CARE (N=1)	GENERAL (n=1)
	• I don't care (n=1)

APPENDIX E
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS: TEACHERS

INTERVIEW #1

Mrs./Ms._____, thank you for talking with me this
afternoon. Would you explain your class schedule to me?

Would you please tell me a little bit about your class?

I noticed that on your community board that there are
different stars next to each child's picture. Each star
has a different color and a different sign on it; also,
some children have more stars than others. Would you tell
me a little bit about that?

What is a class meeting or class agenda? I saw a piece of
paper on the board with "Class agenda" on it.

What is this arrangement--the one with all the pocket
folders with everybody's name on it?

What is the purpose of the class goal I have seen written
on the board at times?

What kind of reward system do you use?

Thank you.

END

Interview #2

Thank you for talking with me this afternoon. I would like to ask you a few questions about yourself.

Would you please tell me a little bit about yourself?

What are some things that are important to you, as a teacher? (please explain)

What are some of your goals for this class? (please explain)

Are there some children who may be more in tune with what you think of them? (please explain)

Are there any ways that you use to encourage interpersonal relationships between yourself and the students, in your classroom?

Thank you.

END

Interview #2

Thank you for talking with me this afternoon. I would like to ask you a few questions about yourself.

Would you please tell me a little bit about yourself?

What are some things that are important to you, as a teacher? (please explain)

What are some of your goals for this class? (please explain)

Are there some children who may be more in tune with what you think of them? (please explain)

Are there any ways that you use to encourage interpersonal relationships between yourself and the students, in your classroom?

Thank you.

END

APPENDIX F
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS: STUDENTS

Interview #1

Hi. My name is Mrs. Zygouris-Coe and today I am going to ask you some questions. Thank you for coming to talk with me. I won't tell your teacher or your classmates anything you say to me. I also want to remind you that you do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. You can stop this interview at any time. Your participation or non-participation in this study will not affect your grade in any class. If you have any questions, please ask me.

Tell me a little bit about yourself.

Tell me about what you think Mrs./Ms._____ thinks of you.

Do you ever think about what your teacher, Mrs./Ms._____ , thinks about you, in class? (please explain)

Does it matter to you what your teacher, Mrs./Ms._____ , thinks of you? (please explain)

In your paper, you wrote that you think Mrs./Ms._____ thinks
How do you know that is what she thinks of you? (please explain)

What does she do to let you know what she thinks of you?

Is there something you'd like to know about what Mrs./Ms._____ thinks of you? (please explain)

Thank you for talking with me, today. Do you have any questions?

END

Interview #2

Hi. Today I am going to ask you some more questions.
Thank you for coming to talk with me. I won't tell your
teacher or your classmates anything you say to me. I also
want to remind you that you do not have to answer any
questions you do not want to answer. You can stop this
interview at any time. Your participation or non-
participation in this study will not affect your grade in
any class. If you have any questions, please ask me.

Tell me a little bit about yourself.

Tell me about what you think Mrs./Ms._____ thinks of you.

Do you ever think about what your teacher, Mrs./Ms._____ ,
thinks about you, in class? (please explain)

Does it matter to you what your teacher, Mrs./Ms._____ ,
thinks of you? (please explain)

In your paper, you wrote that you think Mrs./Ms._____
thinks
How do you know that is what she thinks of you? (please
explain)

What does she do to let you know what she thinks of you?

Is there something you'd like to know about what
Mrs./Ms._____   thinks of you? (please explain)

What would you like her to do so you can know better what
she thinks of you?

Thank you for talking with me, today. Do you have any
questions?

END

Interview #3

Hi. Today I am going to ask you some more questions. Thank you for coming to talk with me. I won't tell your teacher or your classmates anything you say to me. I also want to remind you that you do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. You can stop this interview at any time. Your participation or non-participation in this study will not affect your grade in any class. If you have any questions, please ask me.

Tell me a little bit about yourself.

Tell me about what you think, Mrs./Ms._____, thinks of you.

How do you know that is what she thinks of you? (please explain)

What do you think about this idea of asking children what they think their teacher thinks of them? (please explain)

Do you think children can have a pretty good idea of what their teacher thinks of them? (please explain)

Are there some people who you think can have a better idea about what their teacher thinks about them than others?

Is there something you'd like to know about what Mrs./Ms._____ thinks of you?

Thank you for talking with me, today. Do you have any questions?

END

APPENDIX G
A SAMPLE OF VERBATIM TRANSCRIPTS

Line Time   Discourse

[000112:25 p.m. I get to the room during recess. Melissa,
0002   Andreas, Lizie, Marcus, Christina, and Albert
0003   are in the room. They are playing games at the
0004   computers. Andreas is pretty good at computer.
0005   games.
0006   The teacher is working at her desk.]

0007   "Okay, recess is over! Let's get back to your
0008   seat!", Ms. Naylor says.
0009   "Escape! Escape!", Jonathan yells.
0010   "Let me write my name.", Lizie says.
0011   "Computers, off!", the teacher says.
0012   "Okay, let me just write my name and quit.",
0013   Lizie says.
0014   "We shut it off when I say to shut it off.", the
0015   teacher comes over and tells Lizie and Greg.
0016   "Greg, come on shut it off!", Lizie says.
0017   The shut the computers off.
0018   "Shh!!!", many children go.
0019   "Okay, Mario is ready.", teacher says [and waits
0020   for the rest to get ready.]

[0021   There is still quite a bit of noise and talking.
0022   The teacher sits in the front of the room.
0023   The children are passing out folders.]

0024   "Who is number 7?", a girl asks.
0025   "Mine!", someone says.
0026   "Shh!!!", the teacher says.
0027   "Quietly you can be finishing your work from
0028   yesterday, part D and part E on lesson 101.",
0029   she says.
0030   "Whose pencil?", a boy asks while passing
0031   pencils out.
0032   "Continue on lesson 101. Also, let me ask you a
0033   question. Do you think I was having fun this
0034   afternoon?", she asks the class.
0035   "No!", some children answer.
0036   "I wasn't having fun and you weren't having fun.
0037   What can we do differently next week so we don't
0038   have this problem next week? What can we learn
0039   from this day so we don't do the same thing
0040   twice? Addy?", the teacher asks.

[0041   Addy gives her answer. There is a lot of noise
0042   in the tape; (XXX).]

0043
0044   "And that's what the class discipline is for. I
0045   mean, the reason we got so long wasn't because I
0046   was giving you extra time. It was because I
0047   need it to get through to everybody because you
0048   were taking so long. Our schedule does not
0049   allow us any extra time. There is no extra time
0050   in our day to do things. I barely have time to
0051   check homework and grades and that's one of the
0052   reasons I made you go to art today instead of
0053   that other program; it's because I needed time
0054   to go through your work and get ready for math;
0055   I needed that time. And so, is really important
0056   when we talk about the standards we set, when we
0057   send the newsletter to your parents, it's all
0058   part of this. Not turning our work turned in,
0059   not putting our name on it, it's showing me that
0060   you don't care. I care; I care enough to check
0061   into your work, and grade your work. You care
0062   enough to do your work, but I need you to take
0063   it to the next level. I need you to do a good,
0064   a better job than what you've been doing. Okay?
0065   We are in fourth grade. I am not going to say
0066   if you didn't turn in your work, to turn it
0067   in. I am not going to say you didn't put your
0068   name. If you don't do it right, you are just
0069   going to have to redo it. I am going to write a
0070   letter to your parents; that's a given. Yes?",
0071   she says.
0072   "I understand why you were mad at people.", a
0073   boy says.
0074   "Hum, I am not mad. I am just frustrated, not
0075   mad. There are so many people and then you guys
0076   get upset at me when I have to make you sit in
0077   and then it gets more frustrating. So, if we
0078   can have some common ground, some mutual
0079   respect. We don't have that. I call you, I make
0080   eye contact with the
0079   anything. We really need to work on that; we
0080   really need to get it together. (2s.) Like, we
0081   have six minutes before we need to be in our
0082   places for literature. Hum, anyway.", she says.

[0083   The children are listening quietly.
0084   A girl asks a question (XXX).]

0086   "Our policy is that when you are in the
0087   classroom you need to be always ready to listen.
0088   From doing a rough draft for writer's workshop
0089   to listening to the D.A.R.E. officer, or

```
0090        anything.  When you work with me or you work
0091        with Ms. Jules, or with Mrs. Adams, it's the
0092        same.  And I think that we all hear that and we
0093        don't need to ask that question.  It's like you
0094        don't need to ask 'Do I need to capitalize a
0095        proper noun?'  When you're saying that over and
0096        over, that's what you are really saying to me.
0097        My expectations are way up here for you in what
0098        I want you to achieve, and right now, you are
0099        only up to here--she shows--you are only half
0100        way.  We can produce better work, we can be
0101        better students, I know you can, and I am going
0102        to help you get there.  And it's painful
0103        sometimes; it's painful, like today, but we
0104        learn from it and we try not to make
0105        the same mistakes.  Mario?", she says.
0106        "Now we can act better.", Mario says.
0107        "I know you can do it.", she says.
0108        "Our goal for next week is to not do what we did
0109        this week.", she says.

[0110       A couple more children comment, but I can't hear
0111        what they are saying.]

0112        "Try to be the best we can be.", Mario says.
0113        "Okay, show me that you are ready by getting
0114        your folder and your book.  If you are in Mrs.
0115        Cleary's group, line up outside.", she says.

[0116       Transition time.  A lot of movement and noise.]

0117        "Okay, if you are in the Whipping Boy group--a
0118        literature group--you can go into the office--
0119        next door--.", she says.

[0120       A lot of movement as some children leave and
0121        some others come from Mrs. Cleary's room.
0121        There are three literature groups from both
0122        classes; one is working in the office with Ms.
0123        Naylor, the second with Ms. Jules in Ms.
0124        Naylor's room, and the third with Mrs. Cleary,
0125        in her classroom.  They each work on a
0126        book. It takes some time for all children to
0127        settle in.]
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[012812:48 p.m. Ms. Jules comes in to work with this group; they
0129   children who present in the room are: Lizie,
0130   Samantha, Craig, Tara, Alex, Edith, Kate, Jane,
0131   Greg, Roberta, Edna, Dale, Cindy, Lynette, Kyle,
0132   Arthur, Heather, Christina, Marianne, Lucas, Ed,
0133   and Jonathan.]

0134   "Good afternoon! Let's get started! Hum, I
0135   picked up homework this morning and I looked at
0136   it. I will talk about some of the answers
0137   briefly, now, I'll grade your homework over the
0138   weekend and give you some feedback.
0139   I am pretty sure that you did
0140   your best job; you probably did very well on it.
0141   Okay, what do you recall from the book, that
0142   Catherine used that was medicine or remedies?
0143   What were some of the things they used, Kyle?",
0144   Ms. Jules says.
0145   "Mint, and garlic.", Kyle says.
0146   "Anything else you could recall? Susanna?", she
0147   asks.
0148   "Cumin.", she says.
0149   "Yes.", she says.
0150   "Anything else?", she asks.

[0151   They continue talking about the different herbs
0152   used and she writes some of the terms on the
0153   board.]

0154   "A goblet?", a boy says.
0155   "A goblet, was a cup; you've drinking goblets at
0156   your house, That's what it is.", she explains.
0157   "What's the definition?", a girl asks.
0158   "It's a drinking cup. So, where did they put
0159   the garlic and the mint, and the vinegar?
0160   (4s.)
0161   "In the goblet, and they would mix it up in the
0162   goblet. That was a liquid that they gave her to
0163   drink. What does vinegar and cumin seed, and
0164   garlic, and mint, what is similar about all
0165   these remedies?", she asks.
0166   "They were healthy.", a boy answers.
0167   "They were healthy. But, what about the
0168   ingredients? The commonality of the
0169   ingredients or how they are classified? What do
0170   they all have in common? Jonathan?", she asks.
0171   "They were all put in the goblet.", Jonathan
0172   says.
0173   "My question is what do they all have in common
0173   as ingredients?", she asks.

0174   "They may have some acid in them.", a girl says.
0175   "Well, that may be true; I am not sure.
0176   Heather?", she asks.
0177   "They are all herbs and spices.", Heather says.
0178   "They are all herbs and spices. And where do we
0179   get our herbs and spices from? (2s.) Where do
0180   we get all our herbs and spices from, Patrick?",
0181   she asks.
0182   "A garden.", Patrick answers.
0183   "Right! So they were all things that they could
0184   grow In a garden new. So, that's where they got
0185   everything they needed. Does anyone know if
0186   people take garlic for their health, today?
0187   Edna?", she asks.
0188   "Yes.", Edna answers.
0189   "Yes. Some people still take garlic for their
0190   health. Some of the medicine they used back
0191   then, were useful. Not everything turned to be
0192   something that caused a problem or didn't cure
0193   you. It may not have cured what they wanted it
0194   to, it sounds like they had a theory of illness
0195   and they kept little bit. I think there are
0196   some scientific studies that show that.
0197   Samantha?", she asks.
0197   "We use garlic in our food.", Samantha says.
0198   "Good point. Bur I think that some people take
0199   garlic tablets for their health. Maybe some of
0200   your parents do. (3s.) You know one other thing
0201   that it's so important in having fewer diseases,
0202   and if you think about it, it relates to all
0203   those three that they had a problem with. (2s.)
0204   Mold? And what do doctors do before they go in
0205   to perform an operation or even before they
0206   begin to work in their office?", she asks.
0207   "We have to clean ourselves.", Lucas says.
0208   "That's right; sterilization.", she says.
0209   "How long do you think people might have lived
0210   in those days? What would you say?", she asks.
0211   "About twenty to thirty.", a boy answers.
0212   "What would you say, Heather?", she asks.
0213   "About seventy to eighty.", Heather says.
0214   "What would you say, Christina?", she asks.
0215   "Sixty to seventy.", Christina says.
0216   "We have a long range; from a twenty to eighty.
0217   Roberta?", she asks.
0218   "They probably lived long, like the people in
0219   the Bible.", Roberta says.
0220   "This was for sure a lot after that time. What
0221   do you think the average age was?", she asks.
0222   "Well, Roberta thinks it's way up there but I am
0223   speculating it was pretty low. Ian?", she says.

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0224        "Thirty to fifty.", Ian says.
0225        "How about one more?  Lucas?", she says.
0226        "Forty to fifty.", Lucas says.
0227        "In the book I was reading, it said that the
0228        average life span of people in the medieval
0229        times, was about forty.  And today, it's a lot
0230        higher than about what she used for colors?  She
0231        didn't have Crayola and stuff like that.", she
0232        says.
0233        "She used onions.", a girl says.
0234        "True; what else did she use to get her colors?
0235        Cindy?", she asks.
0236        "Acorns.", Cindy says.
0237        "Did she get them ground?", she asks.
0238        "Maybe.", Cindy says.
0239        "She used all natural kind soft things for color
0240        and printing.  Very interesting.", she asks.
0241        "And speaking of color and printing, your next
0242        question was: What machines are you aware of
0243        that we have today that made this job very easy?
0244        Bill?", she asks.
0245        "The printing machine.", Bill says.
0246        "The printing press. The invention of the
0247        printing press marked the modern age.", she
0248        says.

[0248       Jane shows some pages from a Bible that was
0249        printed in the medieval times; they are framed.
0250        Ms. Jules shows them to the class.]

0251        Write a sentence you think she might write to
0252        describe her friend or to describe George.  And
0254        if you remember what you said, I want you to
0255        share it so I can write a couple of them on the
0256        board because I do want us to get used to using
0257        the language. Lucas?", she asks.
0258        "George is fair, funny, cute.", Lucas says.

[0259       She writes it on the board.]

0260        "What do you think it means 'he's fair'?, she
0261        asks.
0262        "He's fair.", Lucas says.
0263        "But what do you think she mean when she said
0264        that about him?  Because I know I have a big
0265        definition in my head.", she says.
0266        "Nice.", Lucas says.
0267        "Oh, okay.  See, that's not part of what I was
0268        thinking; maybe I was wrong. Fair, fairness I
0269        thought was to be very attractive. Fair, you are
0270        fair.  Kate?", she asks.
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0271   "I put flattering.", she says.
0272   "For George?", Ms. Jules asks.
0273   "Yes.", Kate says.
0274   "What did you mean for flattering?", she asks.
0275   "He's very cute.", Kate says.
0276   "If I flatter you, what do I do, Lucas?", she
0277   asks.
0278   "Hum, you give me compliments.", she says.
0279   "Absolutely! If I flatter you, I pay you
0278   compliments. I pay you compliments maybe about
0280   your books, or your intelligence, or something
0281   that you've done. How about her friend? How
0282   would you describe her friend, Cindy?", she
0283   asks.
0284   "She is a dove on the outside and a hawk on the
0285   inside.", Cindy says.
0286   "And what does that mean, Cindy?", she asks.
0287   "Maybe she's pretty but she can also be a little
0288   mean.", Cindy says.
0289   "What else doe it mean, Marianne?", she asks.
0290   "She may be a little sneaky.", Marianne says.
0291   "Maybe she's a little sneaky on the inside.
0292   Maybe she uses her manners to be nice but she
0293   may be a little sneaky.", Ms. Jules says.
0294   Cat, Bill, and Ms. Jules talk about why the use
0295   birds to describe her.
0296   "What does George do in his spare time?", she
0297   asks.
0298   "He was in crusades.", someone answers.
0299   "What does it mean he was out crusading? What
0300   was he doing?", she asks.
0301   "He was a knight.", someone says.
0302   "He was a knight of shinning armor. But what
0303   was a crusade? Does someone want to take an
0304   intelligent guess? Dimitri?", she says.
0305   "He was out fighting for years.", Dimitri says.
0306   "That's true. The crusades lasted for many many
0307   years and the knights of England fought in the
0308   crusade for many, many years. So, what was a
0309   crusade? What was it? Ed?", she asks.
0310   "It was war!", Ed says.
0311   "It was war. So if you were a knight, you're
0312   fighting a war. So when she dreamed of him in
0313   his beautiful tunic, she dreamed of him in his
0314   shinny armor.", she says.
0315   "Heather?", she asks.
0316   Another definition of fair, is when you are very
0317   pale skin and hair.", she says.
0318   "If you have very, very pale skin and usually
0319   light skin and light color hair, you are
0320   considered to be fair.", Ms. Jules says.

[0321   They continue discussing the story a bit more.]

0322   "What does Catherine want to do?", Ms. Jules
0323   asks.
0321   "She wants to be a knight.", someone says.
0322   "To be a knight. Yeah, she wants to find a way
0323   to fight the crusades with her uncle George.
0324   This will be fun and romantic and adventurous.",
0325   Ms. Jules says.

[0326   The children are listening quietly.]

0327   "Let's look at our book back to page 34 on the
0328   bottom where it says '20th Crusade of October'
0329   and I really want to finish this today.
0330   Christina, do you want to read?", Ms. Jules
0331   says.

[0331   Christina reads.]

0332   "Please don't interrupt anyone while they are
0333   reading.", Ms. Jules says.

[0334   Christina finishes reading.]

0335   "Do you remember there was a woman in France who
0336   became a knight? She was very, very famous.",
0337   Ms. Jules says.
0338   (4s.)
0339   "Joan of Arc.", Ms. Jules says.
0340   "What is a bed chamber, Roberta?", Ms. Jules
0341   asks.
0342   "A bedroom.", Roberta says.

[0343   A girl reads next.]

0344   "Listen to what she says. I want you to keep
0345   thinking about the language. She said 'Oh, my
0346   cheeks glowed, my heart flutters, and my dreams
0347   go soft and smooth.', when she thinks about
0348   uncle George. What do you think, Alex?", she
0349   asks.
0350   "I think she's being sarcastic.", Alex says.
0351   "You think she's been sarcastic?", she asks.
0352   "Yes.", Alex says.
0353   "You know, that's interesting that you say that.
0354   I don't think she is being sarcastic.", Ms.
0355   Jules says.
0356   "I think she's being madly in love with him.", a
0357   girl says.
0358   "Hum... Ed?", she says.

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0359          "She gets more excited and she gets excited when
0360          she thinks about him.  And what if George's
0361          attitude about being a crusader?", she says.
0362          (2s.)
0363          "What about the fighting and being a warrior?
0364          Bill?", she asks.
0365          "Hum, he doesn't like to see all these people
0366          getting killed.", Bill says.
0367          "Okay.  Let's continue reading.", she says.

[0368         A boy reads.
0369          A few more children read and then Ms. Jules
0370          reads. There is a lot of participation.
0371          They end for the day.  Transition time!  Noise!]

0372          "Boys and girls please put your things together
0373          quietly and please remember...I haven't asked
0374          you to leave yet.  Please remember that if I
0375          dismiss Mrs. Cleary's class and you have to
0376          enrichment, walk quietly.  Mrs. Cleary's group,
0377          you may go.", she says.

[0379         Mrs. Cleary's group leaves.  Enrichment leaves.
0380          The rest of Ms. Naylor's class come out of the
0381          adjacent room.]
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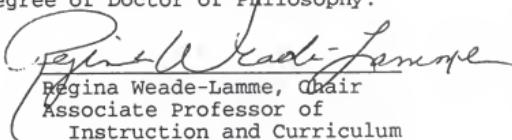
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Professor of Foundations of
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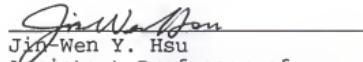
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